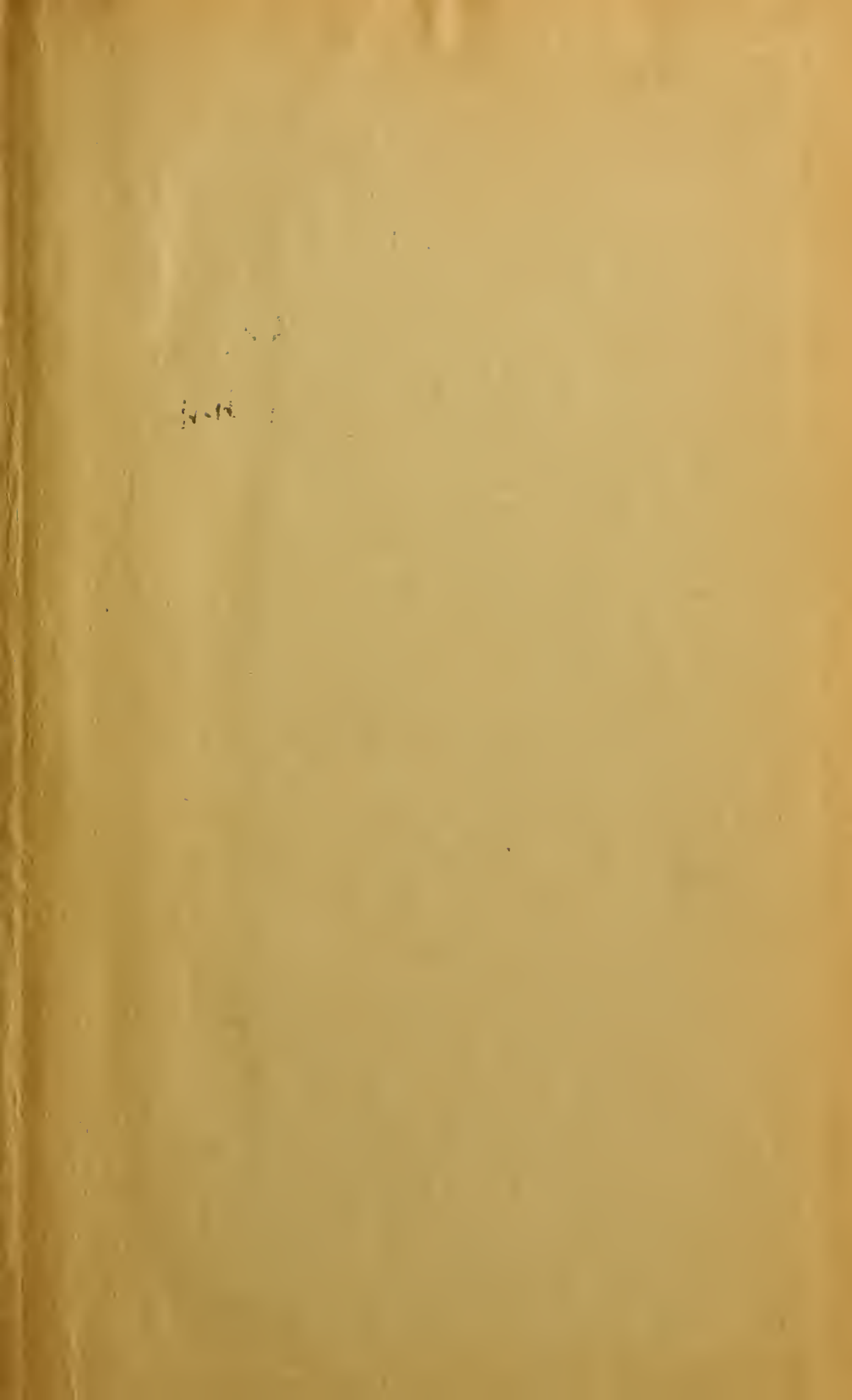


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NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION

HEARINGS

BEFORE THE

SELECT COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING

NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

SEVENTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS

SECOND SESSION

PURSUANT TO

H. Res. 113

A RESOLUTION TO INQUIRE FURTHER INTO THE INTERSTATE
MIGRATION OF CITIZENS, EMPHASIZING THE PRESENT
AND POTENTIAL CONSEQUENCES OF THE
MIGRATION CAUSED BY THE NATIONAL
DEFENSE PROGRAM

PART 28

WASHINGTON HEARINGS

FEBRUARY 12 AND 13, 1942

THE MANPOWER OF THE NATION IN WAR PRODUCTION—BOOK TWO

Printed for the use of the Select Committee Investigating
National Defense Migration



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National Defense Migration



UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1942

SELECT COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING NATIONAL DEFENSE
MIGRATION

July 31 1942
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LAURENCE F. ARNOLD, Illinois

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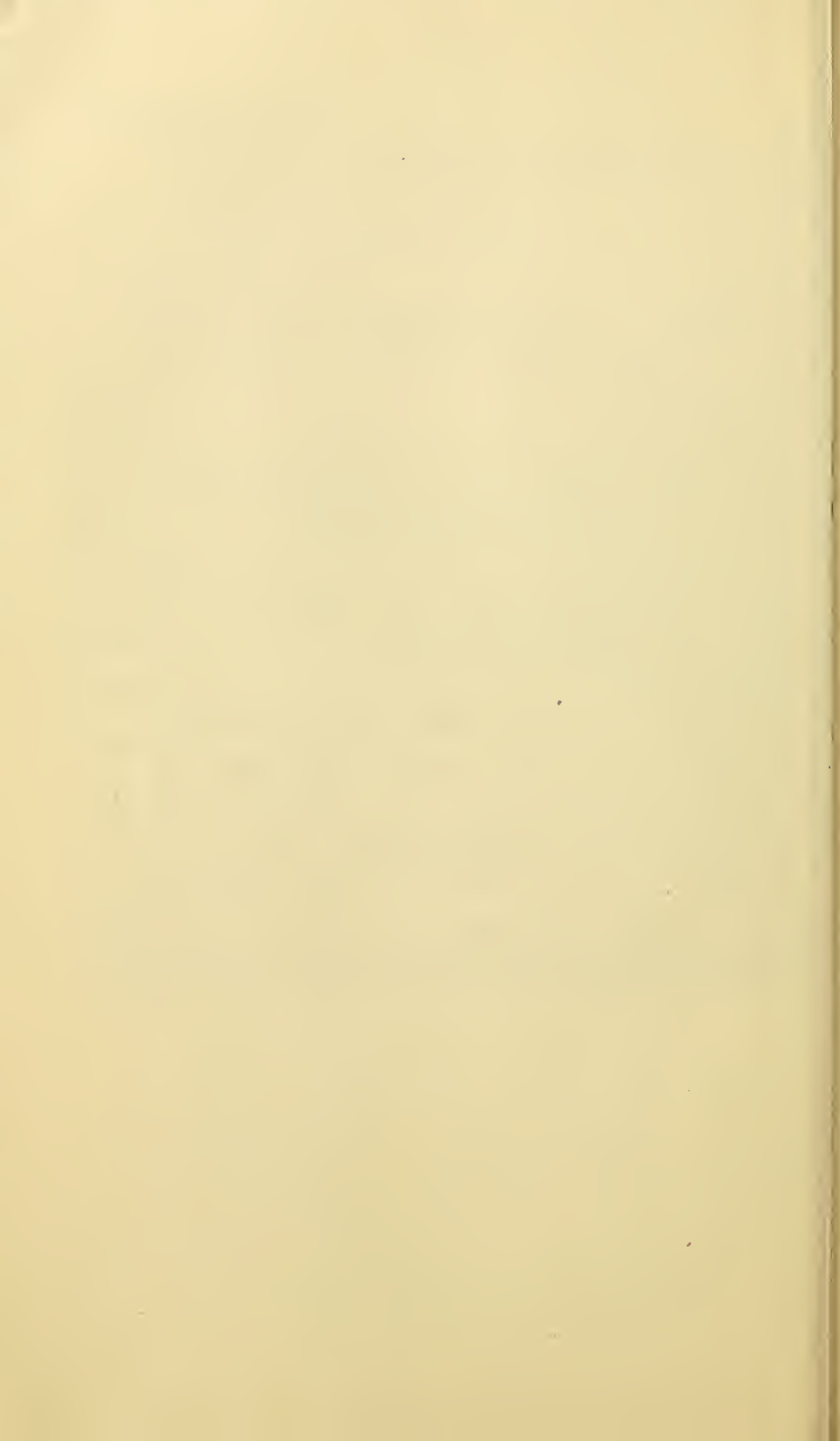
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NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION

THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 12, 1942

MORNING SESSION

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
SELECT COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING
NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION,
Washington, D. C.

The committee met, pursuant to adjournment, at 9:30 a. m., in room 1536, New House Building, Washington, D. C., Hon. John H. Tolan (chairman), presiding.

Present: Representatives John H. Tolan of California, chairman, and Laurence F. Arnold of Illinois.

Also present: Dr. Robert K. Lamb, staff director of the committee.

The CHAIRMAN. The committee will please come to order.

Mr. Hunter is at the head of the table. Mr. Hunter, will you please state the names of the gentlemen to the left of you?

TESTIMONY OF PANEL REPRESENTING FARM PLACEMENT SERVICE, OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Mr. HUNTER. Mr. C. W. E. Pittman, Regional Farm Placement Service representative for the District of Columbia, Maryland, North Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia, Washington, D. C.; Mr. L. C. Stoll, director of United States Employment Service for Oregon, Salem, Oreg.; John E. Gross, regional representative, United States Employment Service for Wyoming, Montana, Idaho, Colorado, Arizona, and Utah; Mr. Charles E. Howard, 11 W. 42nd St., New York, N. Y., assistant director of United States Employment Service for New York; and Mr. Denton O. Rushing, Regional Farm Placement representative for Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma, Kansas City, Mo.

My name is Fay W. Hunter, chief, Farm Placement Section, United States Employment Service, Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C.

The CHAIRMAN. I want to say to the panel that this committee is impressed with the need for an orderly and effective recruitment of workers in agriculture as well as industry. Food will win the war just as surely as armaments. We are therefore concerned about the work of the Farm Placement Service. In a previous report we recommended that Congress carefully consider nationalization of the Service. We are happy to welcome you gentlemen here this morning as representatives of the new National Farm Placement Service.

I would like to have you regard this hearing as informal, and do not hesitate to interrupt each other if you want to. At this point, we wish to introduce into the record the statements you gentlemen have prepared, after which Dr. Lamb will ask some questions.

(The matter referred to is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY FAY W. HUNTER, CHIEF, FARM PLACEMENT SECTION, UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The depression years through which our Nation has recently passed have left many curious effects upon our agricultural industry. When any attempt is made to analyze the effect of these years upon that industry, the labor problem created is brought forcibly to our attention. During the entire period of the 1930's we witnessed an increasing flood of migrant workers whose sources reached not only into the Dust Bowl and other less productive agricultural areas but was swollen by streams of ordinarily employed urban workers returning to farms because industries were unable to survive a depressed market for their goods.

The size and mobility of this labor supply brought to every agricultural area an excess of workers far out of proportion to its needs. The continuing availability of this group of workers left two marked effects upon those who were the normal employers of this type of workers.

1. These employers have come to regard this oversupply of labor as a normal supply.

2. The low wage scale resulting from this oversupply of workers had in many areas come to be regarded as a normal wage scale.

It can therefore be expected, now that our Nation is at war, that these conceptions can no longer prevail. Changing labor market conditions, Selective Service, defense industries, increased production goals, and a host of related factors are working daily to deplete that once plentiful source of workers. Early in 1940 the cry of labor shortage in agricultural areas during peak seasons began to be heard. It is safe to say that during that year no actual labor shortage occurred. What did occur in the period since 1940 was a draining off of this surplus of agricultural workers into other fields of endeavor. Although the numbers of remaining workers were, as a whole, ample to meet agriculture's needs many of them refused jobs because wage offers were substandard or could not compare with a rising industrial wage. Every forecast indicates a further decrease in the number of these workers, which, in all probability, will create definite shortages in areas of high man-hour requirements for seasonal labor. For a number of years the United States Employment Service has attempted to assist in solving this agricultural labor problem in two manners:

1. Through the Federal-State operated system of public employment offices. In certain areas these offices have operated effectively in meeting the farm labor problem. They have handled the migratory labor problem in an orderly and efficient manner. Giving direction and information to this group of workers in such a manner that maximum employment and earning opportunities were offered. In other areas however, employment offices have failed to properly plan and execute this type of service. This failure may be attributed in part to the fact that a prevailing oversupply of labor has led these States to believe that they have no labor supply problem. If they had analyzed this phase of their work, I am sure that many State employment officials would have realized that they did have a problem requiring an orderly distribution of this labor if we were to eliminate oversupplies, relief problems, and a depressed labor and wage scale market.

2. The second method operated in conjunction with the Federal-State system of public employment offices. It consisted of sending into States in need of large numbers of seasonal agricultural workers, field supervisors from the administrative office. These supervisors assisted the State employment services not only in planning operations to orderly serve the agricultural needs of that State, but in the actual operations of those plans. On the whole, these supervisors though limited in numbers did point the way to the State services in recognizing and meeting their problems.

On a Nation-wide basis these two methods were not sufficiently extensive to meet even part way the problem that had developed. A major part of this migratory movement was neither informed, controlled nor directed, and since labor shortage has been indicated it becomes necessary to obtain the maximum use of this labor supply. Realizing this, the United States Employment Service in 1941 took steps to extend and organize its Farm Placement Service in such a manner that service rendered would not be confined to State initiative or a few areas.

A. FARM PLACEMENT SECTION, UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Under the supervision of the Director of the United States Employment Service, there has been created a separate section responsible for planning, developing, and directing the Nation-wide farm placement program. This section must correlate and coordinate its program with other Bureau activities as well as with private and governmental agricultural organizations.

B. REGIONAL FARM PLACEMENT REPRESENTATIVES

In each of the 12 regional offices of the Social Security Board provision has been made for a regional farm placement representative. This representative works under the direction of the regional representative, United States Employment Service, who is also the acting chairman for the regional labor supply committee. The regional farm placement representative is responsible for planning, developing, and supervising the farm placement programs of the States within the region. He must render technical assistance to the States, and will coordinate and direct interstate movements of labor. He collaborates with the regional labor market analyst, and representatives of the Department of Agriculture in the collection and use of agricultural labor market data. This information is made available to the States in his region and to the regional farm placement representatives in neighboring regions.

C. STATE ADMINISTRATIVE AGENCIES

In each State there has been assigned on the Employment Service administrative staff one individual whose primary responsibility is farm placement supervision. This individual is responsible for the proper operation of the farm placement program within the State. He must make certain that all local offices are rendering effective farm placement service, and must coordinate, at the State level, farm placement activities with those of clearance, research, and statistics, and other employment service operations. He must work in close cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture war boards, and farm labor subcommittees, and serve as an active member of these groups.

D. LOCAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

These offices must be located in such a manner that they can provide prompt and efficient service to the agricultural areas within the State. It is the work of the local office to recruit and refer workers to agricultural employers in response to their request. They must plan in advance to meet seasonal needs and must assure that there is a full utilization of local labor before sending requests to neighboring offices or the State clearance supervisors to obtain workers for other areas. In each of the local offices, one individual has been designated as a farm placement officer. He must serve as a member of the United States Department of Agriculture war boards, and farm labor subcommittees for the county and work in close cooperation with these groups.

E. STATE PLANS

Prior to January 15 each State employment service submitted to its regional farm placement representative a plan of operation for its farm placement program. These plans were reviewed at the regional office level to ascertain whether or not adequate provision had been made to adequately serve the agricultural needs of that State. Corrections and suggestions relative to the improvement of these plans were submitted to each State employment service in order that the farm placement program for that State might be as effective as possible.

OBJECTIVES

1. Completion of a uniform and adequate farm placement program at all levels and areas of employment service operation.
2. Perfect necessary arrangements for cooperation and coordination with other governmental and private organizations in order that all resources may be fully utilized and to prevent duplication of efforts.
3. Provide proper supervision for a farm placement program to fully utilize local labor supplies and prevent insofar as possible undirected, undesired, and uninformed migration of workers.

THE PROBLEM

Oversupplies of agricultural labor are rapidly diminishing. The farm labor problem is therefore being transformed from one of finding jobs for workers to one of finding workers for job openings. Wartime production, coupled with a series of attendant factors, are seriously affecting the normal available supply of agricultural workers.

Contributing factors adding to the draining off of these workers:

1. Continued drain on the agricultural population to centers of war industry.
2. Induction into armed forces by selective service.
3. Replacement in nondefense industries by rural youth due to high wage scale.
4. An expanded agricultural program brought about by the necessity of providing food for our 26 allied nations.
5. The undirected movement of migratory workers causing surplus labor in some areas and often a shortage of workers in other areas.

These factors and many others of lesser importance will seriously affect the normal available supply of agricultural workers. Wage levels in the industry cannot compare with those in other industries. Inability of migratory workers to obtain automobile tires may impair the possibility of this type of worker entering crop areas during peak seasonal needs. The rural youth fails to look upon his farm work as an essential war industry and enlistments in the armed forces deplete the ranks of needed workers in the agricultural labor market. All of these, added to the normal trend from agricultural districts to metropolitan areas during periods of prosperity, add to the complexity of agriculture's labor problem.

MEETING THE PROBLEM

The United States Employment Service can be of material assistance in controlling, insofar as possible, the flow of workers to agricultural employers. They can assist in mobilizing the farm labor supply in such a manner as to obtain a maximum utilization in food production. Local employment offices can provide for full utilization of local labor. Through their clearance procedures an orderly recruitment program can be carried on by an area, State, or regional basis. These offices can provide adequate information to workers on job opportunities, wages, transportation, and housing conditions. They can exercise through this means a better control and direction over migratory workers.

FEBRUARY 6, 1942.

STATEMENT BY JOHN E. GROSS, REGIONAL REPRESENTATIVE,
UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, WYOMING, MONTANA,
IDAHO, COLORADO, ARIZONA, AND UTAH, DENVER, COLO.

PLANNING FOR SEASONAL LABOR NEEDS IN AGRICULTURE

During the decade of the thirties agriculture operated under conditions of a large surplus of farm labor. Due to what seemed to be an unlimited supply of manpower many labor practices developed that were wasteful. Now, because of the war, agriculture finds that the labor supply, which heretofore had seemed inexhaustible, is rapidly diminishing. Agriculture did not necessarily need to wait for the declaration of war. It received a warning in 1941, and even in 1940, to the effect that labor would not be as plentiful as it had been in the past.

Increased industrial activities due to the defense program brought about an increasing trend of agricultural labor into the industrial fields. Here in the Rocky Mountain region in 1941, where few if any defense contracts were awarded, it was very noticeable through the records of the United States Employment Service that an increasing number of our agricultural workers were leaving this area for more lucrative employment in defense plants located in other parts of the Nation. Also it was indicated by the Department of Labor records for early 1941 that factory wage employment had taken an upward trend in this region. Reports revealed Colorado had an increase of 23 percent, Montana 3 percent, Idaho 5.6 percent, Utah 11 percent, Arizona 2 percent. Wyoming is the only State in this region that showed a decrease in factory employment, which, as shown on the records, was a -3.5 percent.

The States of the Rocky Mountain region were also generously contributing their share of voluntary and Selective Service enlistments in the armed forces.

As a result of this revelation, even as early as the late fall of 1940, at the very beginning of formation of plans for the agricultural season of 1941, considerable momentum developed in the age-old appeal to request our Government to relax the immigration laws and permit labor from Old Mexico to migrate into this area.

Those of us who have had experience in the agricultural activities of this area are fully cognizant of the source of pressure behind such requests. Fortunately, during 1941 the United States Employment Service and the United States Department of Agriculture cooperating as the most-qualified agencies of the Government to resolve this issue, proved that there was absolutely no need for migration of labor from Old Mexico into this area. Studies and surveys indicated an adequate number of workers available. Proper use and control of movements of these workers was all that was needed.

In most of the crops that are customarily grown in the Rocky Mountain region along the eastern slope extending from Montana to Arizona, acreage was far in excess and more plentiful crop was returned than that from any other year in the past 10. In spite of all the apprehension of those who were fearful of the resources of labor and were distrustful of the predictions and analysis of the various Federal agencies, this most bountiful crop of 1941 was planted, cultivated, and harvested without record of any significant losses. It is true that resources heretofore untapped were brought into action. In some instances the schools were closed down for short periods or had through previous schedules arranged for a vacation so that the students could be used in the harvesting of the communities' chief crops at the peak of the season.

The cooperation of the United States Employment Service and the Department of Agriculture cannot be listed as the only two Federal agencies that were involved in the successful culmination of this 1941 season. They were very ably assisted and cooperated with in every respect by local Work Projects Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration. These agencies in many instances closed down their projects so that their workers and enrollees might be referred to the Employment Service and placed with farmers.

It is my firm belief that agricultural labor sources have never been fully developed. Heretofore it has been the policy to more or less rely upon the number of agricultural workers who might be registered with the United States Employment Service. This figure is comparatively a small percentage of the number that theoretically can be considered as resources to be used within any community.

Through the medium of the United States Employment Service we believe that a canvass of the resources of any community would disclose figures that would astound any of us with the number of workers who could perform agricultural labor and who could be registered. The problem of channelizing this supply of workers is very definitely a responsibility of the United States Employment Service, working with other agencies concerned with agricultural problems.

The Employment Service, in most of its offices, is undoubtedly very well equipped to assume this responsibility. There are a few offices, however, we are sorry to say, where it would be almost criminal to assume this responsibility. Through newly established straight-line Federal administration these offices can be immediately strengthened.

To successfully discharge this placement function, the Employment Service will need to call upon all of its resources and it must maintain a fine, cooperative working agreement with the Department of Agriculture, and with various representative groups both municipal and county, Legion, labor, schools and, very definitely, farmer groups so that they may intelligently and authentically analyze the farmers' needs. The Employment Service through its local offices, can render this service in the agricultural program, and by so doing, it will do much to eliminate the present practices of wild recruitment and the wasteful migration of workers. The United States Employment Service will serve not only the farmers but the Nation as a whole in this program of conserving the Nation's labor supply.

Considerable progress has been made in developing in each community, served by the United States Employment Service offices, this proposed type of cooperation. Through the untiring efforts of the Department of Agriculture with the assistance of the United States Employment Service, committees are being organized at the local level consisting of representatives of farmers' groups, processors and canners of agricultural commodities, agricultural officials and repre-

representatives of the United States Employment Service for the purpose of making exhaustive surveys and compiling accurate figures on crops, acreages, farmers' labor needs, available agricultural labor, and to study the development of other potential resources of agricultural labor.

It shall be the responsibility of these committees to supply to the State administrative offices of their respective divisions authentic information on the agricultural needs of their respective areas. They will survey and report on the number of agricultural workers needed and the time that they will be needed, housing facilities on the farms, the need, if necessary, of Farm Security Administration housing, either permanent or mobile camps, wages, working conditions, transportation problems, etc.

During the season of 1941 the above program was effective in a few localities in the States of this region and thoroughly demonstrated that it is the most comprehensive approach to the agricultural problem of labor supply that has yet been developed.

Even in the few instances where these practices were in evidence, it was shown conclusively that migration was kept down to a minimum and that workers were provided with a longer tenure of employment. Moved systematically from farm to farm and from crop to crop during the season the workers lost very little time. In some instances the farmers were surprised to learn that through this controlled arrangement they actually used less labor than they had expected.

It is a foregone conclusion that a program of the above type cannot be developed and made to operate effectively within any one season, but it has been well started in this region and should make great strides of improvement in 1942. It has been proved beyond a question of doubt that it is fundamentally sound and is the solution of a good many evils that had become common practice during the years that a large surplus of farm labor existed.

The coming year presents many complications indeed difficult of solution this early in the season. Among those are the question of transportation of the migratory worker who, by his own transportation, has for years followed the harvesting of crops. Also there is the problem of transportation of those workers whom it may be necessary for the United States Employment Service to move from area to area. The latter of the above two problems would need to be of no concern if the movement of agricultural labor were a responsibility with appropriate authority to control, of a designated Federal agency. Positive control of the movement of agricultural labor does not present complex problems. It would be comparatively simple to administer such a program through the United States Employment Service, and it is the consensus of a great many who are in a position to know that if the present state of emergency continues over any great period of time that such action will necessarily need to be taken.

Those who recommend such a program at this time realize that only through this medium will it ever be possible to eliminate pirating and unethical practices of private industry in recruiting labor.

In planning the 1942 "Food for Victory" program in this area, it is expected that through the development of the proposed representative committees at the local level that untapped resources of agricultural labor will be developed, that programs will be worked out with farmers for the staggering of the planting time for some crops so that the cultivating and the subsequent harvesting may be spread over longer periods.

In the development of added resources of agricultural labor it is hoped that a sense of self-sufficiency will be promoted within each community. It is also hoped that the plan will be so effective that there will be little or no demand for migratory labor other than that commonly known as resident migrants. Possibly there will be a shortage of agricultural labor, but we believe that it will be a shortage in relation to what has formerly been plenty rather than a shortage of labor for the actual needs of agriculture. Or, as past experiences have proven, it may be a shortage that is definitely traceable to the rate of wages offered.

While no labor priorities have been in evidence at least to date, we feel that labor must be conserved and used economically else there will not be enough to go around. We must reduce migratory labor to a minimum. Keep them at home. Use them at home the year around. Improve local working conditions and housing and wages. Agricultural employment must be made more attractive, more lucrative, else the gap between agriculture and industrial employment will continue to widen.

We must husband our labor resources and use them as efficiently as we do our rubber and aluminum. They are far more vital to our defense.

EXHIBIT A.—GENERAL ACTIVITIES OF COUNTY FARM LABOR COMMITTEES
WORKED ON BY THE FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION IN COOPERATION WITH
COLORADO DIVISION OF THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

WAR PROGRAM FOR COUNTY FARM LABOR COMMITTEES

I. General activities

Some problems.

During the decade of the thirties, agriculture operated under the conditions of a large surplus of farm labor. Due to what seemed an unlimited supply, many labor practices developed which were wasteful. Now, due to the war, agriculture suddenly finds that the labor supply which seemed inexhaustible is rapidly diminishing.

Whether we like it or not, we must recognize the following facts and adjust our thinking accordingly.

Large numbers of agricultural workers have been drawn into industrial or military activities.

As the national war efforts are stepped up, still more workers will be drawn from agriculture.

At this time industry is enticing agricultural workers by offering higher wages. Men who were paid \$1 or \$2 per day for farm work during the thirties are now drawing a minimum of \$5 per day in industry.

Industry promises more stability than agriculture. Many agriculture workers are given work only at peak seasons. In order to have steady employment, they must travel from place to place, following the harvest, at the sacrifice of a stable home life and educational advantages for their children.

Even though paying a higher wage, industry offers shorter hours of labor.

Industrial workers enjoy many advantages denied agricultural workers.

Among these are workmen's compensation, unemployment insurance, social security, etc.

Industrial workers on the whole have better housing, more sanitary conditions, and better medical facilities than agricultural workers.

The thinking farmer will recognize that higher wages for labor will provide a larger market for his own produce. Certainly the advantage of a stable family life; insurance against disability, sickness, and unemployment; education for the young; good housing; sanitation; and good medical facilities will make for national strength. Low wages, unemployment, poor housing, poor education, unsanitary conditions, undernourishment, and instability are ideal conditions for the development of epidemics of disease and political discontent. A nation in which they are general is ill prepared to meet an enemy. People who live under those conditions cannot be expected to ably resist the enemy and protect their own homes and property.

Any plan to provide sufficient farm labor must recognize these facts. In the language of the farmer, farm labor must have "parity." Any plan which does not recognize these facts is foredoomed to fail. Farmers and farm leaders have pointed out repeatedly that the only democratic way to get farmers to reach the food-for-freedom goals is to make it pay. The same may be said of farm labor. Parity wages are as essential to farmers as workers because much of the farmer's income is wages which he earns on his own operations. The only one who profits by low wages is the large operator. When he operates his land with low-paid labor, he is using that same cheap labor to compete with small farmers. As his costs are cut in that manner, he is able to sell his products cheaper and thus cut the income of the family-type farmer. Such advantages permit the large operator to crowd out the family-type farmer and reduce him to a low-paid laborer.

For nearly 10 years farm laborers have been a surplus group. They have been made to feel that they were unnecessary, a burden to society, and, in too many instances, unwanted. Some counties have prevented their free passage across the county boundaries. They have been driven out of towns and their makeshift homes burned by armed vigilantes.

Many groups enticed to their communities three and four times as many workers as could be used and then forced wages below those promised to entice them into the community. One banker-farmer summed up the attitude behind such actions when he said: "I need three crews. One that I just fired, one that is working for me, and one that is coming to take the place of these when I fire them."

For some time we have recognized that a total war cannot be conducted on a "business as usual" basis. Neither can agriculture be conducted as usual. The unlimited production of the less essential agricultural projects would be as unwise

and unpatriotic as the production of automobiles at the expense of tanks and bombers.

The production goals of the Department of Agriculture are agriculture's priority list. Consequently, we may expect machinery and labor to be rationed to farmers on the basis of the position of their product on the priority list. A straw indicating the direction of the wind is a memorandum dated December 4, 1941, from the national headquarters of the Selective Service Board to State directors for local board release.

The memorandum is designed to provide local selective-service boards with basic information for deferring selectees. It divides agricultural produce into two divisions:

A. Commodities of greatest importance, under which are included milk and dairy products, eggs and egg products, poultry meat products, hogs and lard products.

B. Commodities of distinct importance: Naval stores (turpentine and resinous products), flax and hemp, soybeans, peanuts, sugar beets, sugarcane, commercial vegetables, cattle and calves, sheep and lambs.

It further points out that "The areas in which the greatest difficulties in securing labor have been experienced during 1941 correspond roughly with the areas in which a major portion of the agricultural products listed above must be produced.

In the section devoted to policy and procedure, it states "The local board has the problem of deciding whether or not an individual agricultural worker is so necessary to so much of the agricultural program which is in the interest of national defense, that he should be deferred under the provisions of paragraphs 350-353 of the regulations. This problem should be approached with a full appreciation of the considerations described above, that is, (a) importance of the product, (b) importance of the enterprise, (c) importance of the skill, and (d) relative labor shortage in the area."

The one-crop farms operated on a large scale generally contribute the products least needed for either war or peace and require the most seasonal labor. While they contribute little to defense, they tend to bring about instability of farm labor; prevent the agricultural ladder from working; and, by competition with products produced cheaply in terms of money but costly in terms of national welfare, drive the family-type farmer from the land.

National objectives for improving the labor situation.

Devices to bring security to farm labor on a parity with that for industrial workers:

1. Extension of the workmen's compensation and social security acts to include farm labor. As family-type farm operators are workers also, they should likewise be included under the acts.

In order to encourage stability which develops the most desirable citizens, it is for the national welfare to have as high a percentage of resident labor as possible. It is the stable resident who has an interest in the local community that makes the good citizen. It is the stable resident that can establish a home and instill in his children those qualities necessary to build the American of the future.

2. Provide full employment for farm labor. This may be accomplished by:

(a) Organizing the farm activity in such a way as to employ year-round labor and require a minimum of seasonal labor. Fortunately, many of the foods and crops needed to win the war and maintain a healthy nation in peacetimes are those which demand the least seasonal employment. Many farmers can further diversify and thus provide full-time employment.

(b) Planning nonagricultural work to be carried on during slack seasons of agriculture.

Year-round employment can be maintained by community and county planning. It involves the development and timing of nonagricultural work to mesh with agricultural work.

Every county has road construction and maintenance and other public works as well as private construction. If such work is so timed as to be carried on during slack agricultural periods, it will stabilize employment and income for resident workers and at the same time retain local labor which is best for farmers and the community.

3. Keep the agricultural ladder free. The best possible workers are those who have hopes and ambition to become farmers and farm owners. The person who feels that he has no opportunity to advance is less likely to be a good worker or citizen.

4. Provide adequate housing for farm labor. Unmarried men will not accept farm labor unless they are provided with room and board comparable to what

they can get in industrial work. Married men cannot be expected to remain farm laborers unless their families can be provided with adequate housing.

Farmers needing year-round help should provide adequate and convenient housing on the farm.

A federally subsidized housing program for building permanent labor homes in communities where year-around laborers are needed has long been a vital need in rural communities. During the present emergency the need is even more vital. The more that laborers can be provided suitable housing near their work, the less will be the need for rubber tires and automobiles to carry them back and forth.

5. Parity wages for agricultural workers should be obtained. Unless agricultural workers receive wages on a parity with industry, they will take positions with industry. It will work to the welfare of the small farmer as well as the laborer and community to insist upon the enactment of a minimum wage standard for agricultural workers. As a matter of self-protection, farmers should insist that certain minimum labor conditions be met in order to obtain marketing quotas or payments under Agricultural Adjustment Administration.

6. Adequate medical facilities must be available to farm labor families. Many industries offer free medical services to their employees. Agriculture can offset that disadvantage in bargaining for labor by insisting that Farm Security Administration provide grants for full medical needs of farm labor families.

7. *Hours of work.*—In addition to higher wages, industry offers workers shorter working hours. It is generally conceded that an industrial worker will do nearly as much in 8 hours as in 12. Farmers are beginning to recognize this fact. In 1941 a number reported that they had limited the hours of work to 8 and that their workers were accomplishing just as much or more than under the old 10- or 12-hour system.

8. *Training farm labor.*—It is frequently pointed out that much farm labor is of a skilled nature and that the shortage of that kind of labor is most acute. It will be more and more necessary for farmers to train their labor. Industry is bidding for unskilled workers whom they then train for their jobs. Agriculture must do the same.

9. Develop a feeling that farm workers are important in agriculture and in the life of the community and Nation.

The best and, therefore, cheapest workers are those who are contented and feel that they are vital to the welfare of the Nation. Such an attitude can be developed by providing full employment and the feeling of security that goes with it; good physical and mental health through adequate housing, sanitation, nutrition, and medical facilities; fair treatment by their employers; and a square deal for their families.

10. *Produce farm products that are high on the priority list.*—From this farmers should anticipate the possibility that their requests for labor to the Employment Service Office may be filled according to the rating of the product for which they need workers. If their product is listed in the second grouping, their order may not be filled until needs for those in the first group are met. If not listed in either group, their order may not be filled until all needs for the harvest of the more vital groups are filled.

11. *Encourage the family-type farm.*—The farm labor shortage can be met best by family-type farms organized to require the minimum of seasonal labor and operating on a diversified agricultural plan. These are the farms which can best step up the production of the most vital foods.

The points outlined above present the essentials of a program to retain farm labor, win the war, and develop good citizens. It should be kept in mind that the challenge to democracy by the totalitarian countries cannot be entirely blamed on a few leaders. Rather, it arose out of the dissatisfaction of the people with their condition of life. America has two tasks of equal importance: The defeat of the totalitarian nations and the proving that democracy can provide a feel of security and a good level of living for all its citizens. By providing food for the democracies resisting totalitarianism and planning toward the end of obtaining security for both farmers and laborers, farmers can contribute to the war for freedom and at the same time strengthen the Nation. Crushing the totalitarian nations is only half the job. Final peace can be won only by developing strong citizens who feel secure because they have full employment and a full dinner pail and know that they fill a real need in our national economy and politics.

II. A county organization to cope with labor problems

In order to provide county United States Department of Agriculture Defense Boards with the machinery necessary to fulfill their responsibilities in the labor field and also in order that labor problems shall be tied in with over-all agricultural planning for the counties, it is recommended that the following organization be set up to function as a joint subcommittee of the defense board and the county agricultural planning committee:

The Farm Security Administration supervisor, after consulting with local agricultural people interested in the labor problems and the welfare of laborers, shall appoint, with the approval of the district supervisor, a county war farm labor committee consisting of representatives of the Federal Security Administration, United States Extension Service, Work Projects Administration, two United States Department of Agriculture agencies (one to represent the defense board and one to represent the planning committee), two farmers, and two farm laborers. Additional persons may be selected as advisory members according to the need.

It is felt that in any county where the labor problem is sufficient to necessitate in-migration it is essential that a United States Extension Service employee should be available full time, at least during the peak seasons.

III. Analysis of labor needs and full utilization of local supply

Sufficient labor to produce the food and fiber necessary to win the war and maintain world peace in the future is dependent upon achieving the needs pointed out in section I. This section deals with practical plans for achieving that end through the War Farm Labor Committee.

Planning is the first requirement for the retention and mobilization of labor resources. Facts are absolutely essential to intelligent planning. There are two main sets of facts which must be obtained on the county level.

A. *Accurate data on the number of laborers needed at specific times.*—This is essential because (1) there is not a large surplus of farm labor available and a miscalculation by one community or enterprise may deprive another of labor necessary to save its crop; (2) unless labor is used economically, there will not be enough to go around. We must husband our labor resources and use them as efficiently as we do our rubber and aluminum. They are just as vital to our defense. Time must not be lost in going to a job that does not exist; (3) if workers do not have full employment and, by going to jobs that do not exist, get the impression that there is not enough farm work, they will accept positions in industry.

To determine the laborers needed at specific times, the following method is suggested:

A. From Agricultural Adjustment Administration or other records obtain (1) acreage of each crop which requires seasonal labor; (2) number of farmers raising the crop.

B. Draw up a table showing the man-days required for each operation at the time of year when it occurs and the duration of the season.

C. Determine the number of acres which an individual worker can handle during the season.

D. Divide the total number of acres by the acres that can be handled by one man.

E. From the above result, subtract the number of operators raising the crop plus number of family workers and year-round hired men employed by the operators who raise that crop. The result will be the number of seasonal workers required.

In many counties the above calculation may show that there are sufficient farm operators to harvest the entire crop even though additional seasonal workers have been employed in the past. This is especially true in the wheat area. The reasons for the apparent error are that some of the farmers are large operators who have hired farm laborers. Other operators may have other businesses and depend on hiring cheap farm labor from a glutted labor market. At the same time that seasonal laborers were employed by these two groups, a large number of smaller and low-income operators have been underemployed even at peak seasons.

Under these conditions, unless there is an abundance of unemployed resident workers, those who have acreages too large to be operated by their own family and full-time employees should seek assistance from their neighbors with smaller acreages. Such cooperative arrangements would be worked out best in advance of the season.

The arrangement should not be difficult, as farmers recognize the national need for the crops. Neither is it too much to expect each operator to contribute his own labor even though he may be a banker, as his operations prevent the use of his land by farm families who could do the work. Indeed, the welfare of the American farmer is undermined by the nonresident operator who competes with cheap seasonal labor and thus tends to force down the farmer's level of living, force him off the land, and eventually reduce him to the status of a migratory laborer.

While it is probable that the small farmer may demand a higher wage to work off his own farm, he will undoubtedly be worth more. Full utilization of skilled agriculturalists is as vital to defense as full utilization of skilled machinists. Such a cooperative arrangement will also increase the full utilization of machinery.

B. *The number of laborers available at specific times.*—In case there are not enough farm resident workers, attention should be turned next to the other resident labor supply of the county. Its efficient utilization also depends upon planning based on the knowledge of facts. The following recommendations are made for obtaining the necessary information on a county basis:

1. A general survey should be made of the available resident labor supply by months. This should be done by months because during some seasons there will be more workers available than at others. For instance, during the summer there will be a number of boys out of school who will be available.

2. In advance of the season when additional workers will be needed, workers should be urged to register with the local employment service office or an office designated to cooperate with it. This necessary registration of available workers will be facilitated if the Social Security Act is extended to include farm labor.

3. Also in advance of the season, farmers who need workers should register their needs with the same office. In addition to their needs, they should indicate (a) a definite period of time for which they will hire the man and (b) the extent of the job they have in terms of acres or other unit of work. Any valid prediction as to labor demand and any reliable opinion regarding adequacy of labor supply must be based on known acreage, known crop conditions, and scientific crop estimates. The size of the job should be compared with the number of men requested, in order to bring the two into agreement. The precaution is necessary, as in the past we have been used to a surplus labor supply and have employed large numbers for a short period to do a job that now would be more desirable to extend over a longer period with fewer men.

The committee should determine the length of time over which the various processes may be carried on.

This is necessary, as the records of the Employment Service are full of requests for workers which far exceed the needs. As an example, a typical case is taken from the records of the Texas State Employment Service: "An order for 500 pickers was received at 8 a. m. By noon 150 pickers were on the job and by 8 a. m. the next morning the entire order was filled by the local employment office. Not only the labor need was exaggerated but the actual acreage was inflated. According to publicity, 500 acres were ready for harvest; actually, the acreage was 150. The 500 workers had 12 to 15 hours of employment. Fifty workers might have had a week of work." And this was in an area requesting that immigrant workers from Mexico be brought in.

We need not discuss the moral issue here. Every farmer knows how he would react if he were in the worker's position. If labor is scarce, such tragic misjudgment will result in laborers avoiding the area in the future and a shortage will be real, perhaps resulting in a loss of a crop.

With a labor shortage, such a misjudgment results in the loss of thousands of hours of labor vitally needed for our war effort. It also means needless wear on rubber tires used to transport the workers.

In case it is determined that there are not enough resident workers to accomplish the work to be done at a given season, the committee should request the Employment Service to locate and direct the necessary workers into the area at the time they will be needed. The procedure for this is outlined in the following section.

IV. *Preparing for and utilizing migratory labor*

A. *Housing and sanitation.*—War Farm Labor committee must take steps necessary to improve already existing housing and construct housing where it is needed. Where individual farmers cannot finance such housing as is needed, committees should insist on the establishment of permanent and seasonal housing for farm workers through community assistance or through governmental aid.

Some committees are already organizing to cooperatively purchase and remodel tourist camps to be rented at low rates to migratory laborers.

The Farm Security already has set up a program to provide housing for migratory laborers in well organized temporary or semipermanent camps with sanitary facilities, medical care, recreational leadership, etc.

B. *Medical care.*—Farm workers as a group are not healthy. Insufficient food, exposure, and absence of medical care are the principal causes. With the migration of the youngest and most efficient workers to the cities, farmers will have to rely more and more on the group least able—physically—to labor.

Until farm laborers are accorded the same consideration as city workers under social legislation and until farm prices will permit wages to agricultural laborers that will enable them to afford medical care, a federally subsidized program should be provided immediately to finance medical care for farm workers and their families, including corrective surgical and dental cases.

C. *Transportation.*—It is reasonable to forecast that if our farmers do actually require labor other than that available within the immediate and nearby communities there will be a transportation problem. Whereas in previous years most migratory farm labor transported themselves by motor vehicles requiring such commodities as oil, gasoline and tires, we now know that even motor vehicles themselves as well as fuel, lubricants, and tires will be most difficult if not entirely impossible for this group of people to obtain as restrictions now stand. Farm labor committees should investigate the most efficient means of transporting workers into an area and the most efficient means of moving them from home to work once they are there.

School busses can be pressed into services along systematically planned routes to carry workers from their houses to work.

D. *Wages and hours.*—Farm labor committees must make an effort to afford farm wages and hours more nearly comparable to industrial wages and hours. In order that such provisions might be uniformly fair to all farmers, observance of minimum wages and maximum hours standards should be prerequisite to obtaining benefit payments. Assurance should also be made that farm income is supported at a level that will permit farmers to meet those standards.

E. *Social security.*—(a) Workmen's compensation (accident compensation) has long been available to industrial workers under State workman's compensation insurance laws. Steps should be taken immediately to secure the same coverage on a Federal basis, for both farm operator and labor.

(b) Unemployment insurance for farm labor must be made available immediately. There is no justification for discrimination against farm groups on this law.

(c) Old-age insurance coverage of farm workers should be enacted as soon as possible—including a guarantee of a minimum monthly payment after the age of 60 adequate to provide a minimum standards of living considered decent.

F. Until adequate social security legislation is provided for farm workers, a cooperative arrangement between Surplus Marketing Administration and Farm Security Administration should be made for making grants to enable farm workers to purchase orange stamps and receive an additional 50 percent of blue stamps during periods of unemployment due to weather conditions, physical disability, or lack of employment opportunity.

G. If the analysis, outlined in section III, has indicated a need for importation of laborers into the county, the committee should immediately notify its nearest United States Employment Service office. From that point on, the United States Employment Service, in cooperation with the United States Farm Placement Service, will plan for meeting the indicated needs.

H. Committees, before requesting the immigration of farm workers, should have signed orders for the total number of workers requested. Each order should be signed by the farmer making the request. The order should further indicate how many acres to be worked and what the rate will be and what the plans are for housing and transporting the workers. The United States Employment Office will not act on any unsigned order. Each county committee will be provided with a supply of order forms.

I. No orders for migratory workers will be acted upon as long as there is sufficient available local labor. There must be no effort on the part of individuals or groups toward creating a surplus of labor at any point. Any trends in this direction should be immediately discouraged. Committees will find that differences in opinion will arise between farm workers and employers. For example, there will be pirating of labor. This is to be discouraged. Wage differentials will occur. In those instances, the committee can be of considerable assistance in helping to handle the situation.

EXHIBIT B.—FARM LABOR SITUATIONS FOUND IN CERTAIN LOCALITIES IN NEW MEXICO, TEXAS, KANSAS, COLORADO, WYOMING, AND MONTANA

REPORT BY DR. GREGORY SILVERMASTER, DIRECTOR, LABOR DIVISION, FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, OCTOBER 13, 1941

New Mexico

In the Mesilla Valley area we are advised that there are at present approximately 2,000 workers. This number is not as great as numbers which have been there in past years and some careful planning is being made in labor use. However, the Placement Service advises that no serious difficulties are expected.

The cotton-picking season is not complete and is possibly now at its peak in this area. About 3 weeks ago there was a greater supply of labor than at present. However, severe rainstorms damaged the crops to some extent and slowed up the maturing process. Also, the rains forced the migrant workers to leave the area and move west to Arizona where weather conditions were better.

In the Pecos Valley in southeastern New Mexico, the situation is almost identical. There were, in that area, quite a few migrants who left when the heavy rains and floods hit the area about 3 weeks ago. A matter of interest is the report of the New Mexico port of entry officers concerning the reaction of migratory workers. The port of entry officers there stopped all possible workers and attempted to direct them to employment in the cotton. The officers are reporting back that a large number of the migrants are asking if there are Government labor camps in the area and are refusing to consider work because there are no camps.

In the Pecos Valley area we are advising that the cotton is now opening rapidly under the warm sun and that this creates a problem which has normally not been encountered in cotton areas. However, the Placement Service believes that the situation can be handled with no loss to the farmers because of shortage of labor. There is a possibility that there will be some loss of crops due to the rain.

In the vicinity of Portales and Melrose in the east central part of New Mexico, some difficulty has been encountered in securing labor for the harvesting of broom-corn, peanuts, and potatoes. However, the broom-corn harvest is about complete and there has been no loss and the potato and peanut harvest is now under way with no anticipated crop loss. The matter of additional interest is the fact that the schools have closed at Portales in order that the school children may be available to work in the peanut and potato harvest.

The Farm Placement State director in New Mexico is emphatic in his statements that Farm Security Administration camps are desperately needed in all of the foregoing areas. In New Mexico in spite of the fact that heavy rains have changed the normal picture, it appears that the forecasts earlier to the effect that the labor-requirements situation could be met were accurate. It apparently has been necessary for the farmers and the Placement Service to give more thought to careful planning and labor use.

Texas

In the Texas cotton areas in region XII there have been rumors from time to time of labor shortages which, according to our latest information, have not developed. There is no indication of a labor shortage at the present time in any of the cotton areas. There is not at present sufficient labor to handle the expected crop; however, it is still early in the season and local people appear confident that the necessary labor will appear in time for the harvest. Their optimism extends to the point that there is a great amount of talk in the area of holding the cotton-picking rate down to 75 cents a hundredweight instead of paying \$1. This attitude does not appear to indicate any fear on the part of the farmers of a labor shortage.

There was some difficulty in obtaining row-crop harvest hands, and the wages ranged as high as \$3 a day. This appears to have been due to the fact that the farmers have been accustomed in past years to a large surplus of available labor and did not make plans early enough to contact the persons needed to handle the row-crop harvest.

Rains have been prevalent in the south plains area, west Texas, and harvests are therefore delayed. However, on the basis of latest information, it does not appear that there will be a labor shortage in the sense that there will not be adequate labor to harvest the crops.

Kansas

The western Kansas wheat harvest was completed several weeks ago with no crop loss. As a matter of fact, it appears that there was possibly a small surplus of labor. The crop was exceptionally good, and the past few weeks have noted a large number of automobiles with Kansas license plates touring the highways in Colorado. I have talked to some of these people and find they are farmers from Kansas who are enjoying a vacation on the basis of a very successful harvest this year.

Colorado

In Colorado it has been necessary to move labor from one area to another, the most notable movement being that of pea pickers from the San Luis Valley to the Arkansas Valley and broom-corn pullers from Huerfano and Las Animas Counties to Baca County. There were 30,000 acres of broom corn in Baca County, the yield being 20 percent above 1940. The peaches were harvested in Mesa, Delta, and Montrose Counties on the western slope with a smaller labor supply but no peach loss. This is apparently due to two factors—better planning of labor use to provide employment of workers by more than one employer each day and the additional fact that the peaches ripened more slowly this year than has been the case in other years. The pea pickers moved from the San Luis Valley to the Arkansas Valley were able to harvest the crops in the Arkansas Valley and return for the same work in the San Luis Valley. There was a bumper crop of peas in the San Luis Valley. In fact so large that the heavy earloadings per day reduced the market price. Arrangements were therefore made to temporarily suspend shipping for a few days and then to release a limited number of cars per day for the market. If the picking had progressed on this same schedule, a smaller number of workers could have received work over a longer period. However, the farmers in their picking operations did not observe this schedule and picked all the peas quickly, thus requiring a larger labor supply.

In connection with the movement of workers from Las Animas and Huerfano Counties to Baca County to work in broom corn, I have discovered one item of interest which is different than any situation which has heretofore come to our attention. The Placement Service knew of an available labor supply in Huerfano County but was unable to persuade these workers to agree to go to Baca County to pull broom corn. The Placement Service then contacted the Work Projects Administration with a request that existing projects primarily in the vicinity of Walsenburg in Huerfano County be closed in order that the workers be made available for the broom corn harvest. Considerable opposition was encountered from the local businessmen in Walsenburg, the pretext being that the sponsors had invested money in the projects and desired their early completion. However, the Placement Service advises that a closer examination of the situation developed the fact that the businessmen in Walsenburg have been and are now dependent to a large degree upon the various relief incomes of the residents of Huerfano and were fearful that many of the persons who might be persuaded to go to other areas for crop harvests might make contacts for permanent employment in such areas and, therefore, not return to Huerfano County for a resumption of their relief status thus depriving the Walsenburg businessmen of this source of income. It appears, therefore, that in this case Government expenditures for relief are constituting a major back-wall of substantial income for the businessmen, a situation which we cannot reconcile with their continual public statements derogating welfare and relief programs.

In the Craig-Steamboat district there is being experienced a lesser number of workers than in previous years but no crop losses are anticipated. In the La Plata County area in the vicinity of Durango, there are about 1000 acres of potatoes the harvest of which began on October 1, the peak period beginning about October 15 and ending October 31 and the over-all period ending November 15. It is expected that only about 60 workers will be needed at the peak. There are, at present, or were on October 6, 10 persons working in potatoes with a reservoir of unemployed amounting to 70 persons.

In Bent County 1,800 acres of sugar beets will require a peak number of 200 workers, the harvest season beginning on October 1 and ending on November 20; the peak beginning on October 15 and continuing for two weeks. On October 6 there were 165 unemployed workers in Bent County. No shortage is expected.

In Crowley County in the Arkansas Valley, 2,900 acres of sugar beets will require about 300 workers with the harvest beginning October 6 and ending November 20. An adequate supply of workers is available. The broomcorn

harvest in Baca County required at its peak which ended October 15, 700 workers. The over-all harvest of broomcorn will end about November 1.

In Morgan and Weld counties, there are approximately 64,000 acres of sugar beets for harvest. This will require a peak number of workers estimated at about 6,500. While the available physical supply as of October 6 seemed to indicate a possible shortage of 250 workers, the Placement Service advises that they do not anticipate any difficulty in securing the necessary number this harvest season which began October 7 and will conclude about November 10 with the peak season coming between October 13 and 30. The Placement Service advises that while there was some concern in the local areas because of no physical supply of laborers, they believe that this was due to the fact that the number was less than in previous years of labor surplus. There has been some shifting of workers from surplus of labor requirement areas, but the over-all picture for the State is that adequate labor is available.

As an added item, in addition to handling its own harvests, it is expected that the San Luis Valley has at least 400 workers available for use in other areas.

Concerning the use of camps, the type of agriculture in Colorado does not paint a clear picture as to their value in alleviating any labor shortage distress. If such should occur, possibly camps might be useful in Hotchkiss peach area from this viewpoint; however, from the standpoint of long time stabilization in permanent farm labor homes, it appears that such homes would constitute a definite community assurance of available experienced labor.

Wyoming

In Wyoming there have been special placement offices set up in certain areas of peak labor need and some labor has been imported from Colorado to supplement the supply in the sugar beet area around Torrington in Goshen County. In Worland in Washakie County in north central Wyoming, the information available as of October 7 was to the effect that the temporary Placement Office had not yet had time to make an actual field examination of harvest requirements and labor supply. However, the office had received a request from the Holly Sugar Co. for 100 beet workers and had forwarded the request to the district office for clearance of that many from New Mexico.

On October 7 the beet fields along the highways in that area were standing practically untouched. However, in Worland a large number of Mexican men, obviously agricultural workers, were on the streets apparently waiting for employment. It appears that the farmers are waiting until the last possible minute in order to secure a maximum sugar content in the beets.

The Extension Service agent in Washakie County believes that the labor supply is large enough and that the harvest of beets could not be hastened by more labor, as the limiting factor on each farm is the amount which the farmer can haul to the factory. He can lift and have topped only the amount of beets he can haul in the same day. A 5-inch snow fell in this area on October 5 and may have had something to do with the lack of labor activity evident there on the 7th. The over-all picture for the State of Wyoming indicates sufficient labor available; this has appeared to be just adequate to meet labor requirements.

The following special efforts were utilized in developing the Wyoming labor supply:

At Thermopolis in Big Horn Basin, Work Projects Administration projects were partially suspended during September and at Worland, Basin, Lovell, Powell, and Cody in the same basin, Work Projects Administration projects have been discontinued for the duration of the harvest. However, this has been the practice in other years. Civilian Conservation Corps boys from 4 camps in the area have been used to a much greater extent this year. They were made available primarily because the increased demand for labor was accompanied by a general raise in farm wages. For example, with board, farm-hand wages have increased from an average of \$25 to \$30 a month to an average of \$45 to \$50 per month. Day wages with board have increased from an average of \$1.75 or \$2 to a minimum of \$2.50. No surplus of farm labor has been available. However, it appears that farm work is commencing to slacken somewhat and it is reported that some workers are now coming to the employment office to register for work. An apparent excess of demand over supply appeared in connection with the harvest of beans and sugar beets; however, the so-called shortage of workers for cutting and piling beans was not a real shortage and all of this harvest has been accomplished with the crops being harvested in the usual harvest period and without crop loss.

A similar situation now prevails in connection with sugar-beet topping. The excess of demand over supply is estimated to be the same as excess of demand over actual labor requirements. No crop losses have occurred because of labor shortage in Wyoming. The fall rains are reported to have damaged the beans considerably, but such damage was in no way due to labor difficulties as beans were out and piled in the normal time.

The bean-threshing situation is somewhat delayed because of thrashing conditions. Farm Placement activities have been utilized to a much greater extent this year. Some room for improvement still exists. It appears that labor homes might be useful in the Big Horn Basin area, where housing conditions are very poor and generally inadequate.

Montana

Information concerning the labor condition in Montana is not complete with respect to the specific areas concerning which we have made previous report. However, the over-all picture indicates that the crops will be harvested with no labor shortages; many of the crops have already been harvested.

The sugar-beet harvest is now getting under way. We have specific information concerning Carbon and Stillwater Counties and Yellowstone County. In Carbon and Stillwater Counties the farm-labor supply has been adequate to meet labor requirements of all crops. Some special efforts were used in developing new sources of labor supply for Stillwater County by securing the cooperation of Work Projects Administration and listing and making available workers who are qualified for farm employment. Wages have been raised from last year's level of \$2.50 per day to an average of \$3.50 in Carbon County and from \$3.50 per day to \$5 per day in Stillwater County.

Not much cooperation was received from the Civilian Conservation Corps camp near Red Lodge where about 125 boys are quartered. It is reported that the camp director desired that the boys remain at camp to carry on the Civilian Conservation Corps work, for which a quota of 200 boys had been authorized but not reached. Less than one dozen workers were secured from the camp. The Work Projects Administration is reported to have refused to make any special effort in Carbon County to transfer workers for referral to farmers. However, on the basis of a check survey by the Employment Service during July by means of a post-card canvass method in the county, the Employment Service reached the conclusion that there was no labor shortage impending and did not press Work Projects Administration for referrals. No surpluses of labor were available.

A starting of chrome-mining operations attracted some extra labor to the area, including some local labor. The number in excess of need in mining requirements was not large and a majority of these workers returned quickly to agricultural employment when farm-wage rates were raised.

There were no specific areas of labor shortage in these two counties and no reported loss of crops due to labor shortages. Farm Placement services were only partly utilized in Carbon County, but more generally used in Stillwater County. It is expected that increases in farm-wage rates and more general use of Farm Placement service, with improved cooperation of Work Projects Administration and Civilian Conservation Corps, will handle the labor situation without recourse to outside sources of labor.

In Yellowstone County the farm-labor supply has been adequate for all crops so far this year except for the topping of beets, which is now entering the period of full harvest. No special efforts have yet been utilized in tapping new sources of labor. Work Projects Administration labor, as in past years, is being used only when Work Projects Administration workers voluntarily lay off to take agricultural employment during the harvest. The volume of such employment has been no greater than in past years and is believed not to represent the full available number of men qualified to top beets. The State employment service is now urging a compulsory suspension of all Work Projects Administration work in the county for the duration of beet topping, estimated to extend to November 1. The Great Western Sugar Co. and the growers are supporting the employment-service action. The suspension is apparently acceptable to Work Projects Administration and is expected to be put into effect October 17. There is no reported surplus of labor; no crop losses reported as yet on account of labor shortage. It is reported that Civilian Conservation Corps boys from camps at Lewistown and Bridger would be available for beet topping if the growers will pay an hourly rate of 50 cents. The growers have not yet indicated a willingness to pay this rate. The need for the beet toppers at present is due primarily to late planting because of bad spring weather and wet weather around the first of October, which delayed the normal starting of the harvest.

There is no indication that Farm Security Administration camps would change the labor-supply picture. However, housing conditions are very bad for farm laborers and it is believed that resident labor homes would be useful in establishing sugar-beet workers on a more substantial economic basis.

The over-all picture for the entire area included in regions X and XII indicates that while some hard work in planning is necessary on the part of farmers and placement services and cooperation with other agencies more fully utilized, there have been no crop losses and apparently will be no crop losses because of any shortage of farm workers. It has been necessary in practically all of the area to suspend Work Projects Administration project activities in many places and also to increase wages in some of the areas. The most urgent need for camps, from the standpoint of actual application to the problem of labor supply, is in the New Mexico and Texas areas, where the farmers apparently believe it would be easier to import large numbers of workers from Mexico than to make careful planning for use of local labor.

EXHIBIT C.—PROPOSED MIGRATION OF MEXICAN LABOR, AS REPORTED AT THE
AMARILLO MEETING OF AUGUST 1941

REPORT BY C. E. HAZARD, SENIOR LABOR RELATIONS SPECIALIST, FARM SECURITY
ADMINISTRATION, DENVER, COLO.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

Denver, Colo.

Subject: Farm labor supply.

Mr. JOHN E. GROSS,
*Regional Employment Service Officer,
Denver, Colo.*

DEAR MR. GROSS: Pursuant to my conversation with you on Monday, I am attaching hereto information concerning the farm labor situation as it was reported to Washington by this office on October 18, 1941. You will note that the report covered the States of New Mexico, Texas, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana. In addition, may I provide some further information which may be useful to you in your Washington discussion.

As result of claims of certain farm groups in Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas that there was a serious farm labor shortage existing for the 1941 harvest, Farm Security Administration labor specialists met in Amarillo, Tex., in August 1941 to exchange information concerning farm labor supply. The farm groups above mentioned had used their contentions of potential farm labor shortage to support pressure demands on Congressmen and others in Washington for relaxation of immigration restrictions on the Mexican border to permit the importation of large numbers of Mexicans to be used as a potential farm labor supply. It was the conclusion of the Amarillo meeting that no labor shortage existed and that, therefore, there should be no mass importation of workers from Mexico. The matter also was brought to the attention of the Mexican Consular Service with a result that the Mexican Government took the position that if workers were imported from Mexico that they should be guaranteed a fair wage and fair living conditions and in addition, guaranteed that proper provision would be made for their return to Mexico after the need for them ceased to exist in the United States. The matter rested at that point at the end of the 1941 harvest.

All reports available to this office indicate that there was no loss of crops in any of the six States in Social Security region XI during 1941 and that in certain sections of these States, particularly New Mexico and Colorado, there was actually a surplus of farm workers who did not secure employment during the 1941 season.

Farm labor subcommittees of the State agricultural planning committees in the six States have been active in varying degrees during the past year and are giving some consideration in varying degrees to the farm labor situation as anticipated for 1942. To the present time, this has resulted in a request through the farm labor committees, and in some cases supported by farm organizations, that Farm Security Administration labor camps be constructed to provide proper housing and proper farm labor service to the farmers. We have requests for such camps in Arizona, Utah (although the Utah request does not come from the farm labor subcommittee), New Mexico, and from farm groups and other interested persons

in Colorado. We are also in correspondence with Montana as result of requests from that State for information concerning the farm labor camp program.

It seems to be the consensus of those who have studied the farm labor problem that farm labor camps operating in conjunction with the farm placement service would be the most useful instrument of proper farm labor supply during the coming season.

Our experience would indicate that with proper planning there would be no need to be greatly concerned about farm labor shortages during the coming year. It appears that farmers have become accustomed, during the past few years, to a large surplus of potential farm workers and are therefore inclined to view smaller numbers, even though adequate to do the work, as a farm labor shortage rather than a decreased supply in excess of the number required to do the work without waste.

I am also attaching for your information as some background material in the farm picture, a copy of North of 66 and a copy of a statement made at a Farm Security Administration regional meeting in Amarillo in June 1941.

There is also attached a list of State Bureau of Agricultural Economics representatives in Office of Production Management region XI.

Sincerely yours,

C. E. HAZARD,
Senior Labor Relations Specialist.

EXHIBIT D.—SOME SUGGESTIVE PROCEDURES FOR OVERCOMING A SHORTAGE OF FARM LABOR

BY R. W. ROSKELLEY ¹

(Colorado State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts and United States Department of Agriculture Cooperating)

The war and the resulting necessary increases in food production present a real challenge to the American farmer. Preparedness is indispensable if the challenge is to be met adequately. Following the attack on Pearl Harbor, Dr. Gallup of the American Institute of Public Opinion conducted a survey in England to learn what the English people considered some of their greatest mistakes, and what things we in America should avoid if we hope to win the war. One of the items mentioned most consistently and emphasized by the English was preparedness. They said that we should beware of attitudes of security and satisfaction. They declared there was danger in feeling that we could get along all right without making specific preparations, or in the feeling that we were adequately prepared to handle any problems which might arise.

If we heed the admonition which the British send us as a result of their blood, sweat, and tears, we will recognize that preparedness is not an idle motto. We will look upon preparedness as a technique by which we may win victories. Victories on the battle front are not possible unless they are preceded by preparedness in the factories and on the farms.

How can farmers produce essential food supplies when they are short of help and perhaps short of repairs for farm machinery or in need of new machinery? The anticipated shortage of farm labor and machinery makes it imperative that every farmer begin today to study the various phases of farm labor problems and initiate measures that will solve these problems on his farm and in his community.

The following items are a few of the many suggestive procedures which, if followed, will assist farmers to overcome a part of the labor shortage that may occur during the next few years. The procedures can do even more than that. If followed they will contribute to the agricultural efficiency of the farm in the best times.

Each of the procedures is based upon education and community organization for the accomplishment of tasks that confront individuals and groups. This crisis presents an excellent opportunity for community subcommittees on farm labor to perform a real service for the local farmers and contribute to the patriotic preparedness of democracy. The particular duties of the community subcommittee on farm labor would be to study these and other procedures and help inform the farmers as to how such procedures can increase the efficiency of agriculture.

¹ Assistant rural sociologist, Colorado Agricultural Experiment Station, experiment station representative on the Land Grant College—Bureau of Agricultural Economics committee.

First procedure—Obtain and study the data that are necessary in order to have an intelligent understanding of the farm labor problem.—One of the most effective ways to proceed in the solution of farm labor problems is to obtain all the basic information that is necessary in order to have a clear perspective of the problem. This would involve data concerning labor requirements and labor resources, as well as ways and means of solving labor problems. Examples of some of the things about which information would seem essential are:

First. What is the acreage of the various crops that are grown in the community?

Second. What kind, how much, and at what periods of the season are the various types of labor needed to plant, cultivate, and harvest the different crops and to care for livestock?

Third. Is the local labor supply adequate to meet the demands? If not, where are other potential sources of labor, and how can it be obtained?

Fourth. What are the kinds and amounts of machinery that are available for planting, cultivating, and harvesting the crops in the community?

Fifth. What resources such as farm shops in high schools or private equipment are available for use in improving farm machinery or making necessary repairs?

Sixth. Who and how many persons living within or adjacent to the community could be used to do such work as carpentry, welding, or blacksmithing in case work of such a nature is necessary?

Some of this information may be difficult to obtain, but it is pertinent, and will help to give an understanding of the labor situation. Surveys organized and conducted by the committee in cooperation with county representatives of employment agencies can obtain the data in the detail that is needed. Assistance in getting this data could be received from the county agricultural agent, Agricultural Adjustment Administration records, census reports, State crop statistician, sugar companies or other processing plants, farm implement dealers, and local employment offices.

Second procedure—Make more effective use of the institutions and services that are already available.—A great deal of work has already been done to establish certain services that are designed to help farmers solve their labor problems. One example is the State department of employment security.

There is a great deal of evidence which indicates that this agency is performing a valuable service. For example, during the fall of 1941 farmers who had grown broomcorn in Baca County anticipated a labor shortage. Having no employment office in Baca County, the farm labor subcommittee of the county agricultural planning committee communicated with the employment office at Lamar. The Lamar office, working through the employment offices in Walsenburg, Trinidad, and other localities, placed hundreds of workers in Baca County to help with the harvest of broomcorn.

Regardless of such examples, we know there are many farmers and laborers who are not using the facilities of the employment service.

The farm shop which has been established as a part of the vocational education program in many high schools offers a number of possible solutions to potential farm machinery repair problems. For example, such shops might be used for educational purposes to demonstrate to farmers how they could perform certain tasks themselves on the farms. Farmers might even take their repair jobs to the school and do their own work under the supervision of the shop teacher.

The boys who have an opportunity to take shop training courses could be trained to make some necessary repairs on farm machinery, harness, and other farm and household equipment. Graduates from these courses and other trained persons might use these shops to make various repairs on different types of farm machinery and equipment.

A number of farmers have rather complete repair shops which might become the repair centers for the community. Competent farmers who own and operate such shops could charge a cash fee for service rendered in repairing machinery for other farmers, or arrangements could be made to pay for the cost of repairs through exchange of labor. If a shortage develops on gasoline and tires, it may be impossible or impractical for farmers to travel long distances for repairs or new parts.

The subcommittee on farm labor can take the initiative in making the necessary arrangements for various procedures outlined in the foregoing.

Third procedure—Perform miscellaneous tasks in the winter that are ordinarily left until spring and summer.—Much work can be done by the average farmer during the winter in preparation for planting, cultivating, and harvesting the crops. For example, it is possible to sharpen plow shares, hay knives, and duck feet and cover them with a coat of oil so they will not rust and so they will scour

when put into use; build headgates and bridges; repair harnesses, farm machinery, and fences; and overhaul or retune the tractor and truck if necessary. Farm labor subcommittees should study local conditions and make special recommendations to farmers regarding tasks that could be done in the winter and where these jobs can best be done.

Fourth procedure—Where possible, stagger the planting of crops in such a way as to minimize periods of rush work.—With a few crops, it is possible to plant parts of them at different intervals, thus avoiding periods of excessively high seasonal employment. Sugar beets are an example where staggering is most possible. If a farmer has 25 acres of beets, he can plant part of the patch 10 days earlier than the remainder, thus avoiding the necessity of having all his beets blocked and thinned within a relatively short period of time. The staggering system of planting will make it possible for fewer laborers to do the early handwork and they will appreciate this fact in that it will provide greater possible income for each worker.

Research work conducted by the Agronomy and Horticulture sections of the Colorado Agricultural Experiment Station, and some work done by the United States Department of Agriculture, give some reliable estimates as to the advisability of early and late planting dates for various crops in different sections of Colorado. The following table, which is based upon the research work that has been done gives dates within which staggering of planting should occur:

TABLE I.—*Recommended early and late dates for planting specified crops in different areas in Colorado*

	Northern Colorado	Arkansas Valley	San Luis Valley	Western slope	High altitudes	Eastern dry land
Winter wheat.....	Sept. 10 to 15.	Sept. 15 to 20.	Aug. 20 to Sept. 10.	Sept. 10 to 15.	Aug. 15....	Sept. 1 to 15.
Spring wheat.....	Mar. 10 to Apr. 20.	March.....	Apr. 1 to May 15.	Mar. 10 to Apr. 15.	Apr. 1 to 15.	Up to Apr.
Oats.....	Up to Apr. 20.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Apr. 1.
Barley.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
Rye.....	Sept. 15.	Sept. 15.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 1 to 15.
Sugar beets.....	Apr. 10 to 20.	Mar. 20 to Apr. 10.	Apr. 20 to May 10.	Apr. 1 to 10.	-----	-----
Corn.....	May 1 to 10.	May 1....	-----	May 1 to 10.	-----	May 1 to 10.
Proso or hog millet.....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	May 20 to June 1.
Sorgo.....	May 15 to 20.	May 10 to June 1.	-----	May 15 to June 1.	-----	May 10 to June 1.
Potatoes:						
Early district.....	Apr. 1 to 15.	-----	May 15....	Apr. 1 to 10.	May 1....	June 1 to 10.
Late district.....	June 1 to 15.	-----	June 5....	May 1....	-----	-----
Field peas.....	-----	-----	Apr. 15 to May 15.	-----	Apr. 15 to May 15.	-----
Onions.....	Apr. 1 to 15.	Mar. 27 to Apr. 15.	-----	Mar. 27 to Apr. 15.	-----	-----
Melons.....	May 10 to June 1.	May 10 to June 1.	-----	May 10 to June 1.	-----	-----
Pod peas.....	-----	-----	Apr. 15 to May 10.	-----	-----	-----
Snap beans (early crop).....	April or May.	April or May.	-----	April or May.	-----	-----

Of course, there is little to be gained by only staggering the planting of certain crops, such as wheat. However, it is possible to reduce the high seasonal labor demands in some specific crops by staggering the planting of certain combinations of crops. For example, if a man proposed to plant 150 acres of spring wheat and 20 acres of onions, he might find it profitable to prepare the ground and plant half of his wheat acreage, then prepare the ground and plant half of his onions before finishing the planting of the grain. This would mean that half of his onion crop would be ready to thin before the second half, thus avoiding periods of rush seasonal work during the thinning time for onions.

Fifth procedure—Change the farming practices to reduce those crops of livestock enterprises that by reason of high seasonal demands do not enable effective utilization of labor and do not produce foods most essential to national defense.—Some farm crops require a great amount of labor for a relatively short season, while others provide

considerable employment throughout the year. Frequently there is great waste of manpower associated with high seasonal labor demands, since much time and energy are required for moving to and from places of potential employment. Many crops that require a great amount of seasonal labor are not among those listed for increases in production to help win the war. The farmer might find it advantageous to exert more of his efforts in increasing his efficiency in the production of eggs and pork and possibly light-weight beef and less effort in the production of wheat, especially if wheat during the past few years has contributed more than 50 percent of his farm income. There is already an excess of wheat. Planting and harvesting wheat require special machinery for a relatively short time, and the crop has a relatively high seasonal labor requirement. Many farmers may find it advisable to change their cropping systems from raw crops that require much labor into pasture that can be harvested by the animals. More extensive use of farm machinery, such as the beet blocker, would save much hand labor. Subcommittees on farm labor should prepare material and help educate farmers regarding the production of foods that are most urgently needed for national defense. Such subcommittees should also indicate to farmers ways and means of increasing the production of such foods.

Sixth procedure—Make living and working conditions on the farm more attractive to farm laborers.—Many farmers realize that in order to obtain good farm labor and have the laborers work efficiently it is necessary to provide favorable living and working conditions and relationships. Some of the major factors that help make farm laborers satisfied are provision of favorable living conditions and fair wages, as well as mutual understanding between the employer and the employees as to the nature of the task to be performed and how it should be done.

Many farmers realize the value of taking a few minutes once a week to outline to the hired help the tasks that it is hoped will be accomplished in the next week or a period ahead and to indicate just what role the hired labor should play in the accomplishment of such a task. Farmers who have been conscious of making living and working conditions favorable for farm laborers have found less trouble in getting and keeping good laborers, and others who have not paid attention to this item have had difficulty in obtaining labor. Farmers find that any effort to make the laborer feel that he is a part of the farm enterprise has paid big dividends.

Subcommittees on farm labor could study successful farm labor relationships with the idea of determining the actual work relationships and living conditions which were conducive to cooperation between farmers and laborers. Once these have been determined, the subcommittees could make an effort to enlighten other farmers concerning such matters as a means of helping others meet an actual emergency.

Seventh procedure—Develop cooperative plans for the exchange of farm labor and farm machinery in the neighborhood and in the community.—The apparent shortage of farm labor and farm machinery suggests that many jobs will either not be done or there will be delay in their completion. This situation plus the necessity of producing food for national defense raises the practical question of how effectively the cooperative ownership and use of farm machinery and a further exchange of farm labor would overcome the anticipated difficulties in these two fields.

If the subcommittees on farm labor have made the necessary inventory on the crops planted and on the machinery and the labor that is available and needed, it would in many cases be possible to outline some cooperative patterns regarding the use of available machinery and the exchange of labor to mutually benefit all those concerned.

Opportunity for the cooperative use of labor and the exchange of labor and equipment is great not only within one community, but also between such areas as dry land and irrigated land where there is considerable variation in the planting and harvesting of different crops.

The same suggestion may be made regarding certain industries and agriculture. An example of the latter would be a possible labor exchange between the coal industry and agriculture. Many coal mines are partially or completely closed during the summer. The proper cooperation between farmers, mine operators, coal miners, and the employment office could bring about an effective utilization of the labor of the coal miners on the farm during the summer periods of high seasonal labor requirements.

Preparation and planning would need to be done to handle such problems as transportation, housing, feeding, sanitation, and placement of these laborers on the farms, but it is not an impossible task. The employment office has already made considerable progress with such placement projects within the State.

Eighth procedure—Develop a potential supply of reserve farm labor.—The rapid shift of world affairs and the registration of all males between the ages of 20 and 64 raises the question as to how many men that we now have as farm laborers will actually be available for spring, summer, and fall work on the farm during 1942. In the light of such indefinite conditions, it would seem advisable to develop a potential reserve of labor supply. Many professional and white-collar workers were reared on the farm. Through proper preparation involving such things as registration, farm placement, and physical training, many white-collar and professional workers could be used on the farm during week ends, holidays, and vacations in the seasons of high labor requirements without seriously interfering with the regular work of these people.

High-school youths and village or city youths (of both sexes) not in school who are not working could perform certain tasks that do not require a high degree of skill, such as helping with the harvest of certain types of fruit and various vegetables, thus relieving other workers to help with other farm work. Precautions should be taken in not assigning jobs to people who are incapable of performing them, and in all cases preparatory training and instruction should be given. A subcommittee on farm labor could be responsible for such a training program.

If the proper procedures are followed in the selection, training, and organization of this potential farm labor reserve, there is no reason why such a group could not be just as effective in the work they may be called upon to do as civilian police, firemen, and first-aid workers have been in England.

A campaign could be instigated to register workers in the employment office or some other established agency that could place farm workers. Many high school and village youths could, with a little training, become prepared to perform various duties on the farm on Saturdays. During the winter would be an excellent time to train, register, and organize youth, white-collar workers, and professional workers for essential farm labor that needs to be done in the summer. This will help win the war.

Ninth procedure—Make more effective use of the labor supply that is now available on the farm.—In some parts of the country where crops are grown that have high seasonal labor needs, the laborer needed for a particular crop is not used for many other types of farm work, with the result that such a laborer is unemployed for a large portion of the year. Perhaps such a procedure is feasible when there is an abundant labor supply, but such practices are questionable during periods of labor shortage. In many cases the seasonal workers undoubtedly do not know how to handle a team, run a tractor, or irrigate, but in the light of a possible labor shortage some time might be spent profitably during the winter to teach them to do certain tasks in preparation for jobs that must be done during the growing season.

Another way of using present and potential farm labor supply more effectively is to devise ways and means whereby part-time workers on the farm could be more helpful. For example, it may be advisable for farm boys and girls in rural areas to go to school on Saturdays during the winter in order that they could get out of school earlier in the spring and start school later in the fall. School vacation periods could be arranged in such a way that boys and girls would be available for farm work during periods when the greatest labor needs exist.

It may be an excellent conservation policy and technique to begin now and initiate a slogan addressed to the people which would read: "Save gasoline, oil, and rubber, and help the 'boys over there' by spending your vacation on the farm to help produce and harvest the crops."

Tenth procedure—Care for animals, tractors, and farm machinery in such a way that they can perform the tasks that are necessary when the time comes for such work.—Many draft horses are wintered out, with the result that in the spring they are so poor and thin that they are not in condition to do a good day's work at a time when a given task should be accomplished. Good farmers stress the necessity of having the draft animals in good shape to prepare the soil and plant the crops at the proper time.

Likewise, good farm managers realize the necessity of keeping farm machinery in good repair in order to be certain that it will do the work that is expected at a given time and still last for a maximum number of years. Such farmers know that barbed wire is a poor substitute for bolts. They know that on any given part of a machine the bolts must be tight. Those parts of the machine that are responsible for cutting or digging must be sharp if they are to perform as they should. Even a comparatively new machine will not operate at its fullest efficiency if it is out of adjustment. Such farmers know that if a given piece of

machinery is to work as it should and last for a long period of time, it must be well greased. It must be painted frequently and protected from the elements when not in use. Keeping farm machinery in good working condition and repair is another place where a bolt in time will not only save nine, but will also save a lot of valuable time of the farm manager and the workers.

Eleventh procedure—Make a record and publicize successful farm procedures that help overcome labor problems.—Many successful farmers and communities have developed some significant techniques for overcoming problems related to labor shortages. Too frequently the techniques whereby such accomplishments are made are never written down and not publicized, with the result that nearby farmers and communities struggle with problems for which successful techniques have already been developed. Record and publicize through the press, the radio, the county agent's office, and the local State employment office of any successful efforts for overcoming the farm labor problem.

Twelfth procedure—Develop a uniformity of records within the community, the county, and the State in order to be able to compile the records and get a county, State, or national picture of the labor problem.—The success which we will have in solving the labor problem will be determined somewhat by the extent to which we are able to obtain an accurate picture on a national as well as a local scale. The effectiveness with which agencies such as the employment service will be able to help will depend upon the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the information that is used to determine policies and build programs. County agents can do a great deal in working with farmers, other county agents, employees of the State employment service and others in working out uniform record forms for tabulating data regarding farm labor.

EXHIBIT E.—Total and rural population, 1940, and total and farm placements, year ending June 30, 1941, for region XI States

State	Population, 1940					Placements, year ending June 30, 1941 ¹		
	Total	Rural nonfarm		Rural farm		Total	Farm	
		Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total		Number	Percent of total
Total.....	3, 507, 938	1, 047, 233	29. 9	908, 655	25. 9	286, 227	142, 988	49. 9
Arizona.....	499, 261	210, 551	42. 2	114, 729	23. 0	90, 195	61, 287	67. 9
Colorado.....	1, 123, 296	280, 702	25. 0	251, 838	22. 4	74, 020	37, 260	50. 3
Idaho.....	524, 873	147, 034	28. 0	201, 131	38. 3	52, 228	28, 622	54. 8
Montana.....	559, 456	173, 110	30. 9	174, 811	31. 2	28, 114	8, 727	31. 0
Utah.....	550, 310	151, 014	27. 4	93, 803	17. 0	24, 636	4, 918	20. 0
Wyoming.....	250, 742	84, 822	33. 8	72, 343	28. 9	17, 034	2, 174	12. 8

¹ Includes complete and supplementary placements.

EXHIBIT F.—Interarea clearance placements, by State and agricultural industry group, 1941 ¹

	Arizona	Colorado	Montana
General farms.....	0	280	243
Dairy farms.....	1	2	1
Cash grain farms.....	0	0	0
Cotton farms.....	0	0	0
Fruit and nut farms.....	0	6	0
Livestock and poultry.....	2	53	1
Truck farms, crop specialties, and miscellaneous.....	0	323	29
Agricultural and similar service establishments.....	0	0	0

¹ No interarea clearance placements in agriculture were made by Idaho, Utah, and Wyoming.

Source: ES-212.

EXHIBIT G.—TOTAL HARVESTED ACREAGE OF PRINCIPAL CROPS IN REGION XI STATES

	Total harvested acreage of 46 crops				Total harvested acreage of 46 crops		
	1930-39 average	1940	1941		1930-39 average	1940	1941
Arizona.....	595,690	676,800	770,100	Montana.....	6,014,070	6,708,000	6,526,000
Colorado.....	5,495,690	5,489,000	6,140,500	Utah.....	1,023,690	1,080,900	1,122,200
Idaho.....	2,780,200	2,909,000	2,935,000	Wyoming.....	1,786,700	1,595,400	1,759,500

Source: 1941 Annual Crop Summary, U. S. Department of Agriculture, December 1941.

EXHIBIT H.—TOTAL COMPLETE PLACEMENTS, BY STATE AND AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRY GROUP, AND SUPPLEMENTARY AGRICULTURAL PLACEMENTS, 1941

Industry group	Arizona	Colorado	Idaho	Montana	Utah	Wyoming
General farms.....	403	7,266	10,207	5,150	1,689	852
Dairy farms.....	145	317	136	162	7	111
Cash grain farms.....	9	63	234	838	3	0
Cotton farms.....	1,051	0	0	0	0	0
Fruit and nut farms.....	86	83	1,992	14	2,429	1
Livestock and poultry.....	209	478	263	917	142	893
Truck farms, crop specialties, and miscellaneous.....	205	986	1,414	1,159	1,301	90
Agricultural and similar service establishments.....	167	183	113	25	19	21
Supplementary agricultural placements.....	53,003	33,006	32,207	3,916	1,434	218

Source: ES-212 and ES-209.

EXHIBIT I.—NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS REGISTERED WITH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN REGION XI STATES, BY MONTHS, 1940-41

	Arizona	Colorado	Idaho	Montana	Utah	Wyoming
1940						
January.....	25,240	65,625	17,038	32,760	24,799	10,982
February.....	25,422	66,645	16,007	31,129	26,067	11,376
March.....	24,003	54,714	13,035	29,624	22,605	10,192
April.....	27,205	65,866	14,181	30,401	22,565	9,958
May.....	25,826	62,287	13,967	27,722	20,165	8,583
June.....	26,064	59,039	14,341	25,864	22,709	8,305
July.....	22,089	59,713	15,290	21,553	22,147	6,571
August.....	19,689	55,385	13,886	17,802	20,450	5,956
September.....	18,871	51,223	13,413	16,784	21,575	4,939
October.....	18,994	50,114	13,278	16,750	23,297	5,050
November.....	17,827	50,527	14,960	17,572	24,003	6,572
December.....	17,600	51,503	16,129	19,150	25,352	6,545
1941						
January.....	19,263	58,295	20,156	22,980	23,540	7,808
February.....	19,000	62,364	20,829	24,012	22,858	7,759
March.....	18,055	61,884	17,766	26,452	23,182	7,995
April.....	18,155	59,771	17,220	20,516	21,801	7,929
May.....	19,687	58,409	33,519	18,487	20,918	5,608
June.....	20,487	54,363	34,938	15,255	21,509	5,413
July.....	18,611	48,367	29,966	11,517	24,007	6,451
August.....	16,082	47,589	23,464	11,087	20,055	5,249
September.....	15,146	46,909	20,911	10,016	16,271	3,926
October.....	15,832	42,957	19,590	9,240	15,219	4,324
November.....	16,767	46,178	19,560	10,439	16,272	5,400
December.....	20,285	49,596	20,473	11,670	15,672	6,145

Source: ES-210.

EXHIBIT J.—COMPLETE AND SUPPLEMENTARY AGRICULTURAL PLACEMENTS IN STATES IN REGION XI, BY MONTHS, 1941

Month	Arizona		Colorado		Idaho		Montana		Utah		Wyoming	
	Complete	Supplementary	Complete	Supplementary	Complete	Supplementary	Complete	Supplementary	Complete	Supplementary	Complete	Supplementary
Total	2,275	53,003	9,376	33,006	14,359	33,207	8,265	3,916	5,560	1,434	1,968	218
January	215	8,944	115	511	80	2	52	21	44	2	23	0
February	85	5,802	174	13	169	52	96	40	6	2	24	1
March	75	2,427	324	29	625	119	300	119	22	5	74	2
April	69	4,326	580	40	632	96	801	231	79	6	165	3
May	135	3,063	1,734	265	1,430	1,444	708	276	362	113	268	4
June	165	1,315	3,681	2,460	2,821	9,000	863	336	1,366	99	252	5
July	172	366	502	7,749	1,695	3,281	1,890	650	1,021	56	323	36
August	250	1,407	410	6,147	1,469	4,896	1,195	396	704	326	179	29
September	355	6,589	727	7,048	2,455	5,140	873	510	900	387	127	48
October	429	8,134	733	6,064	2,103	6,764	1,276	1,009	794	376	353	87
November	197	5,623	272	2,172	675	1,339	211	232	267	61	99	0
December	128	5,007	124	508	205	74	0	96	25	1	81	3

Source: ES-212 and ES-209.

EXHIBIT K.—SUGGESTED DISTRIBUTION OF GOALS OR EXPECTED PRODUCTION FOR 1942 AS THEY AFFECT STATES OF REGION XI

Suggested distribution of goals or expected production, 1942

ARIZONA

Items	Unit	In thousands		Percentage increase, 1942 over 1941
		Suggested goal, 1942	Production estimate, 1941	
Milk production	Pounds	253,000	233,000	9
Eggs ¹	Dozen	5,080	4,417	15
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter.	Pounds	338,525	287,822	18
Cattle and calves	Pounds	299,796	249,830	20
Hogs	Pounds	8,729	8,330	5
Sheep and lambs	Pounds	30,000	29,662	1
Feed crops and hay	Acres	372	379	-2
Corn ²	Acres	33	29	14
Oats (planted) ³	Acres	13	13	0
Barley (planted) ³	Acres	40	44	-9
Grain sorghums, all purpose (planted)	Acres	45	52	-13
All hay (harvested)	Acres	241	241	0
Wheat (planted)	Acres	433	38	-13
Cotton (planted)	Acres	153	148	3
Flax (planted)	Acres	15	15	0
Truck crops ⁴	Acres	59	59	0
Fresh use ⁵	Acres	58	58	0
Market gardens ⁷	Acres	1	1	0
Irish potatoes (planted)	Acres	3	3	0

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goals is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial.³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.⁴ Official allotment.⁵ Expected planted acreage under 1942 allotments.⁶ Commercial.⁷ Excluding cucumbers for pickles and cabbage for kraut.

NOTE.—1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. Where percentage was less than 0.5 of 1 percent no change was shown.

Suggested distribution of goals or expected production, 1942—Continued

COLORADO

Items	Unit	In thousands		Percentage increase, 1942 over 1941
		Suggested goal, 1942	Production estimate, 1941	
Milk production.....	Pounds.....	1, 183, 000	1, 138, 000	4
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	32, 266	29, 333	10
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter.	Pounds.....	826, 909	729, 610	13
Cattle and calves.....	Pounds.....	649, 924	516, 885	18
Hogs.....	Pounds.....	95, 985	101, 210	-5
Sheep and lambs.....	Pounds.....	121, 000	111, 515	9
Feed crops and hay.....	Acres.....	3, 716	3, 699	0
Corn ¹	Acres.....	1, 022	1, 022	0
Oats (planted) ²	Acres.....	190	180	6
Barley (planted) ³	Acres.....	650	638	2
Grain sorghums, all purpose (planted).....	Acres.....	450	455	-1
All hay (harvested).....	Acres.....	1, 404	1, 404	0
Wheat (planted).....	Acres.....	⁴ 1, 303	1, 504	-13
Rye (harvested for grain).....	Acres.....	46	60	-23
Truck crops ⁵	Acres.....	79	77	3
Fresh use ⁶	Acres.....	59	58	2
Market gardens ⁶	Acres.....	5	5	0
Processing.....	Acres.....	15	14	7
Dry edible beans.....	Acres.....	332	332	0
Sugar beets.....	Acres.....		133	
Irish potatoes (planted).....	Acres.....	87	77	13

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goals is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.

² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial

³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.

⁴ Official allotment.

⁵ Commercial.

⁶ Excluding cucumbers for pickles and cabbage for kraut

NOTE.—1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. Where percentage change was less than 0.5 of 1 percent no change was shown.

Suggested distribution of goals or expected production, 1942—Continued

IDAHO

Items	Unit	In thousands		Percentage increase, 1942 over 1941
		Suggested goal, 1942	Production estimate, 1941	
Milk production	Pounds	1,340,000	1,280,000	5
Eggs ¹	Dozens	24,210	22,417	8
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter.	Pounds	400,132	307,130	9
Cattle and calves	Pounds	183,696	153,080	20
Hogs	Pounds	103,936	101,485	2
Sheep and lambs	Pounds	112,500	112,565	0
Feed crops and hay	Acres	1,482	1,481	0
Corn ²	Acres	39	39	0
Oats (planted) ³	Acres	155	138	12
Barley (planted) ³	Acres	180	196	-8
All hay (harvested)	Acres	1,108	1,108	0
Wheat (planted)	Acres	4,865	1,037	-17
Rye (harvested for grain)	Acres	6	8	-25
Flax (planted)	Acres	6	5	20
Dry edible beans	Acres	136	136	0
Truck crops ⁴	Acres	25	23	9
Fresh use ⁶	Acres	15	14	7
Market gardens ⁶	Acres	4	4	0
Processing	Acres	6	5	20
Sugar beets	Acres	(7)	60	-
Irish potatoes (planted)	Acres	125	114	10

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goal is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.

² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial.

³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.

⁴ Official allotment.

⁵ Commercial.

⁶ Excluding cucumbers for pickles and cabbage for kraut.

⁷ Unlimited.

1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. Where percentage change was less than 0.5 of 1 percent no change was shown.

Suggested distribution of goals or expected production, 1942—Continued

MONTANA

Items	Unit	In thousands		Percentage increase, 1942 over 1941
		Suggested goal, 1942	Production estimate, 1941	
Milk production	Pounds	763,000	696,000	2
Eggs ¹	Dozens	19,875	18,750	6
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter	Pounds	544,863	479,580	14
Cattle and calves	Pounds	324,653	275,130	18
Hogs	Pounds	63,210	53,785	18
Sheep and lambs	Pounds	157,000	150,665	4
Feed crops and hay	Acres	2,636	2,499	5
Corn ²	Acres	208	180	16
Oats (planted) ³	Acres	390	331	18
Barley (planted) ³	Acres	275	225	22
All hay (harvested)	Acres	1,763	1,763	0
Wheat (planted)	Acres	4 3,346	4,046	-17
Rye (harvested for grain)	Acres	41	31	32
Flax (planted)	Acres	172	172	0
Irish potatoes (planted)	Acres	18	17	6
Sugar beets	Acres		65	

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goal is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.

² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial.

³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.

⁴ Official allotment.

1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. Where percentage change was less than 0.5 of 1 percent no change was shown.

UTAH

Milk production	Pounds	630,000	559,000	13
Eggs ¹	Dozen	26,294	22,667	16
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter	Pounds	248,619	229,945	8
Cattle and calves	Pounds	136,764	113,970	20
Hogs	Pounds	26,855	30,600	-12
Sheep and lambs	Pounds	85,000	85,375	0
Feed crops and hay	Acres	726	750	-1
Corn ²	Acres	24	22	9
Oats (planted) ³	Acres	35	33	6
Barley (planted) ³	Acres	80	88	-9
All hay (harvested)	Acres	587	587	0
Wheat (planted)	Acres	4 211	265	-20
Rye (harvested for grain)	Acres	4	4	0
Truck crops ⁶	Acres	32	30	7
Fresh use ⁶	Acres	6	5	20
Market gardens ⁶	Acres	1	1	0
Processing	Acres	25	24	4
Irish potatoes (planted)	Acres	11	11	0
Sugar beets	Acres	(?)	41	

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goals is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.

² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial.

³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.

⁴ Official allotment.

⁵ Commercial.

⁶ Excluding cucumbers for pickles and cabbage for kraut.

⁷ Unlimited.

1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. When percentage change was less than 0.5 of 1 percent no change was shown.

Suggested distribution of goals or expected production, 1942—Continued

WYOMING

Items	Units	In thousands		Percentage increase 1942 over 1941
		Suggested goal, 1942	Production estimate, 1941	
Milk production.....	Pounds.....	300,000	297,000	1
Eggs ¹	Dozen.....	6,722	6,167	9
Meat animals, live weight, marketing and farm slaughter.....	Pounds.....	464,626	417,310	11
Cattle and calves.....	Pounds.....	299,354	253,690	18
Sheep and lambs.....	Pounds.....	152,500	149,370	2
Hogs.....	Pounds.....	12,772	14,250	-10
Feed crops and hay.....	Acres.....	1,546	1,528	1
Corn ²	Acres.....	220	197	12
Oats (planted) ³	Acres.....	150	141	6
Barley (planted) ³	Acres.....	76	90	-16
All hay (harvested).....	Acres.....	1,100	1,100	0
Wheat (planted).....	Acres.....	4 296	367	-19
Rye (harvested for grain).....	Acres.....	20	27	-26
Irish potatoes (planted).....	Acres.....	22	21	5
Sugar beets.....	Acres.....	(4)	39	-----

¹ This does not include nonfarm production which in the national goals is assumed to be an amount equivalent to 10 percent of the farm production.

² Noncommercial plus 1941 acreage allotment for commercial.

³ Acreage planted for plowing under is not included.

⁴ Official allotment.

⁵ Unlimited.

1940 production estimate was used for meat animals and soybeans. When percentage change was less than 0.5 of 1 percent, no change was shown.

STATEMENT BY DENTON O. RUSHING, REGIONAL FARM PLACEMENT REPRESENTATIVE, UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, KANSAS CITY, MO.

THE EFFECT OF MILITARY OPERATIONS ON THE SUPPLY OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN ARKANSAS

For normal production and harvest the outside labor required in Arkansas is about as follows:

Dec. 1 to May 1: Spinach.....	400
May 1 to June 15: Strawberries, beans.....	22,000
June 15 to Sept. 15: Beans, grapes, tomatoes.....	5,000
Sept. 1 to Dec. 1: Cotton.....	23,000

By outside labor we mean labor that must be recruited outside the immediate vicinity of the crop. These figures do not include local workers usually engaged in agricultural work. This is on normal production, and does not include the amount of extra labor required for increased defense production. This increase in Arkansas ranges from about 3 or 4 percent in small grains, to almost 100 percent in beans, spinach, tomatoes, and other food crops that are usually processed by canning plants.

In the past, we have experienced very little difficulty in recruiting sufficient labor for the production and harvest of crops when the wages offered were commensurate with the work to be performed. The expected difficulty in securing harvest workers in 1941, despite the great number of agricultural workers that had gone into the various defense industries failed to materialize. The labor supply was very close to normal. We place first as the prime factor in recruiting farm labor for the 1941 crop, the increase in the prices paid. The number of persons willing to accept work such as cotton picking, at \$1.50 per hundred, or labor at \$1.50 to \$2 per day, compared with the number who did accept this work at 75 cents or \$1 per hundred, and 75 cents to \$1 per day, offset the number that was lost to military projects. The second aid in this work was the intense recruiting procedures used by the Farm Placement Division of the United States

Employment Service, and the fact that the work of this Service was more generally known and its facilities more widely used than in previous years.

If the price paid for farm work is commensurate with the upward trend of other labor, we do not anticipate any serious difficulty in securing labor for the planting and cultivation of the 1942 crops. We think this situation can be met by the intense utilization of all available local labor and the transfer of workers from areas of light to areas of heavy agricultural production. What we are concerned about in Arkansas this year is where we are going to secure the labor for the harvest of the seasonal crops, which, as indicated above, require at peak seasons some 20,000 workers.

We have very definite ideas as to where these people came from in the years past; however, inasmuch as we do not know how many regular agricultural workers will be taken by the armed forces and the production of war materials, nor how many mobile workers on whom we have depended for harvest workers are and will be engaged in the same services, we do not know anything very definite about either the supply or the demand for 1942. We do think that it is reasonable, in view of the known facts, to anticipate an acute shortage of harvest workers.

Contrary to popular belief, most of the workers engaged in harvest work in Arkansas during the past years are mobile and not migratory workers. The area from which they have been drawn is decreasing and more labor within the State and along the borders of adjoining States, is being used for this work.

In 1939 the strawberry pickers, many of whom remain in the State for other seasonal farm work, came from 30 different States. Sixty-three percent of the total was recruited in Arkansas, and 79 percent in Arkansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma. In 1940 the pickers came from 22 States; 71 percent from Arkansas, 89 percent from Arkansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma. In 1941 we had pickers from only 20 States; 71 percent from Arkansas, and 95 percent from Arkansas, southern Missouri, and eastern Oklahoma. These and most of our other seasonal workers come from the same areas in which defense plants are located.

According to the Department of Research and Statistics military plants in Arkansas will have a total of 46,000 production and construction workers employed on July 1. Deducting 5 percent of the unskilled and 50 percent of the skilled as outside workers, we have 35,420. Fifty-three percent of the gainfully employed workers in Arkansas are connected with agriculture according to the United States Department of Labor. This means that 18,172 of these workers will be drawn from the farm-labor market. On the same basis, at the present rate of induction the armed forces will have drawn another 13,500 workers from the farm-labor market by July 1. This means by midsummer Arkansas will have 32,272 less than the normal supply of farm workers. It also means that where it was necessary to recruit 20,000 workers in the past under normal conditions, it now becomes necessary to recruit the equivalent of 52,272 workers in a time of labor stringency. This does not include additional number of workers required for the increased agricultural production called for in the food-for-freedom program. According to a report from canning plants in Arkansas, this program will make it necessary for that industry alone to employ 1,872 additional workers this year.

STATEMENT BY C. W. E. PITTMAN, REGIONAL FARM PLACEMENT
REPRESENTATIVE, REGION IV, UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT
SERVICE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

SOME ASPECTS OF FARM LABOR SITUATION ON THE ATLANTIC SEABOARD WITH
SPECIAL REFERENCE TO NORTH CAROLINA

A CHANGING ECONOMY

In the summer of 1940 a farmer of Harnett County, N. C., requested the Employment Service to send him 100 workers to harvest 200 acres of tobacco, stating that he had enough empty tenant houses on his farm to quarter them. The Service recruited for him over a hundred harvest hands from 4 towns within a radius of 40 miles of his home, some of whom had lived on his farm as tenants.

Two facts of far-reaching significance emerge here—namely, sufficient empty tenant houses on the farm to care for peak labor needs, and the necessity to bring a large number of harvest hands to the farm for a short period of temporary service.

The whole incident presents a picture of a changed, and changing, agricultural economy that is of great significance because it identifies a trend that is sweeping fast and far over the Southeastern States. The first part of the picture presents

a changed farm operation pattern: The farmer breaks his land with a tractor, transplants his tobacco plants with a mechanical setter, and cultivates with a four-furrow cultivator. He brings his crop to harvest with only a small percentage of the labor force needed for harvest. He is no longer under the necessity of maintaining on the farm for 12 months the large number of workers needed for a few weeks of the summer. The second part of the picture shows the emptying houses as tenants leave the farm for the surrounding towns and villages where they subsist through casual or Work Projects Administration employment until the harvest seasons come again. The picture is completed when the farmer appeals to a Government agency to help him recall to his farm for a short period the workers who formerly had their homes there.

SOME FACTORS OPERATING TO PRODUCE CHANGE

The incident described above is typical of results being produced quite generally throughout the Southeast by factors operating powerfully throughout the area. It is not the present purpose to identify or analyze all these factors. That would involve social and economic discussion beyond our present opportunity. A few factors are identified below merely to substantiate the thesis of change in employment patterns.

The increased use of farm machinery is affecting powerfully the employment relationships of farm folk. The farm upon which the writer spent his boyhood gave homes, jobs, and livelihood to 10 families. Today the same farm gives employment to 6 families, with practically the same acreage under cultivation. Where are the other 4 families? How can the 6 families do the work of the 10? The answer to the first question is not readily found. The answer to the second is perfectly obvious to one who, with memories of one-furrow turnplows and cotton plows, now sees gang plows and 4- or 8-furrow cultivators traversing the fields of his boyhood.

Significant statements are now being made by farmers anent present labor stringencies, increased wage rates, and employment of farm workers in the construction phase of the defense program. Quite often statements equivalent to the following are made to our field workers: "Yes; most of my tenants are at work at Fort Bragg. They have said they are coming back in time to get crops in, but I don't care much if they don't, I have been wanting to buy a tractor and get rid of a lot of them anyway." The many unskilled are gradually being displaced by the few with higher skills. There are decidedly fewer farm jobs per unit of production than formerly.

The crop-curtailment programs affect farm employment vitally. Some important crops of the Southeast have been reduced by almost one-third. This has inevitably reduced the number of jobs available in the agricultural economy of the area.

The distribution of benefit payments to tenants and landlords alike have not been without effect on employment patterns. Such payments have created a pressure away from the traditional tenancy pattern toward a wage system that will enable the land owner to enjoy an undivided benefit check. The share cropping system is weakening. The North Carolina county in which the writer lived as a boy experienced a 28-percent decrease in share croppers between 1930 and 1940.

The increased importance of vegetable, berry, and fruit production has proved to be a powerful factor effectuating change within the area. The growing of vegetables in small areas of highly concentrated production has created numerous small islands of intense employment activity where the areas involved are so small and the incidence of activity so seasonal that not enough workers can be supported permanently in the area to meet peak needs. Great masses of temporary workers have to be imported. The traditional role of operator family labor has been completely submerged. The population of the small town of the Aurora community in North Carolina swells to 10 times its normal number during the 4 weeks of the potato harvest.

The unbalance existing between tillage and harvest machinery has created new problems. It has seemed much easier to perfect machines for the preparation of the soil and for tillage of the cotton and tobacco, vegetables, fruits, and berries of the area than for the harvest of these crops. This factor in the labor situation has operated to produce a heavy unbalance in labor need from month to month in nearly all crops of the area. A labor tide has been set up that ebbs and flows with seasonal regularity. As the workers stream toward the fields at the beginning of the harvests and toward the towns and villages at the end. This seasonality of need creates the almost insurmountable problems of transportation and housing of seasonal workers.

HOW THE STAGE IS SET FOR MIGRATION

Great masses of farm workers throughout the area are subjected to the action of two powerful cooperating forces. The one tends to push farm workers out from their homes, the other tends to pull them toward distant centers of activity. Construction job opportunities at home press them out. Distant areas of expanding worker need pull them as would a vacuum. The stage is set for migration. The play must go on, no matter how reluctant the actors.

It is a characteristic of the commercial production of vegetables, fruits, and berries that it tends to concentrate itself in small "islands" of high concentration. Many factors cause this. Among these are climate, soil, market location, and transportation routes. The significant phenomenon that affects employment patterns so vitally is the fact that the "islands" of production are so small that they can not possibly support throughout the year the very large number of workers it needs for certain short periods. In these areas the old traditional pattern of operator family labor dwindles to insignificance and is submerged by a literal flood of transitory workers.

Until the factors that cause concentration of production are canceled by factors that will cause, or permit, diffusion of production there is no escape from migration.

Doubtless agricultural statesmanship will continue to search for factors that will cancel the forces that are now substituting roads for homes for so many people. That such beneficent factors can be quickly found and effectively put to work is too much to hope. In the meantime it behooves all to understand that migration is implicit in our present agricultural economy and that migrants are not nomads rebelling against the quietude of established homes.

NATURE OF THE PROBLEM OF MIGRATION AS IT AFFECTS AGRICULTURAL WORKERS
ON THE ATLANTIC SEABOARD

There is a definite, spaced, and quite well differentiated succession of crop maturities from Florida through New York based on north and south miles and the temperature changes that grow from them. Production areas, particularly, in the more southern reaches of the area, are quite neatly spaced, probably by a component of the forces of season, length of harvest period, or market location. The Irish-potato crop is the best illustration of this maturities spacing and succession. The harvest starts first in the Dade County area in south Florida. By the middle of March the harvest period in this area draws to a close and its potatoes no longer satisfy the markets. The natural progression of the season has completed one stage in the supplying of potatoes to a starch-loving people. For several weeks this area could dig potatoes from the earth and send them out in trucks to meet, for a short period, the continuing demand of the centers of population. Now, however, while Dade County has shot its bolt the ever-present demand for tubers goes on. A new area must be found that can take up where Dade County leaves off and throw its product on a clamoring market. This area must, of course, be to the north, just the right distance away. It must not be so close that its potatoes will hit the market before those from south Florida have ceased to be an important factor. It must not be so far away that there will be an embarrassing pause before it can come on the stage. It must be at just that point where distance and temperature decree a crop can mature at just the time the crop next to the south is absorbed by the market. In the present instance the decreed point turns out to be the Hastings and Palatka area in north Florida.

Between the important potato area of north and south Florida Nature travels about 350 miles before it can accumulate enough climatic change to make it safe to mature the second harvest of potatoes without too much overlapping with the first.

From the north Florida area to the Meggett area is almost exactly the same distance. From the Meggett area to the Aurora area in North Carolina is another 350 miles.

Up to this point the situation has not been over simplified. It did not have to be. The facts clearly bear out the thesis that there is a functional relationship between miles and temperature that space crop maturities. From the Eastern Shore of Virginia, where the Atlantic Coastal Plain yields to another geological formation on to the North, the relationship between distance and temperature become more variable and therefore more complicated. Other factors also, such as the canning industry, nearness to great markets, and competing employment enter more heavily as confusing factors.

All of the above is pointed out to show that agricultural migration is not born of the whims of an unstable section of our people or guided in its itinerary by caprice. It springs from factors, that we do not control, operating deep down on the mudsills of our economic and social structure and is guided in its wanderings into directions laid down by the fundamental needs of our national life and is controlled in its goings and comings by nature itself.

Certainly, it is necessary to realize that the elimination of the need to migrate will be difficult and not quickly accomplished. In the interim, while determinedly seeking a cure, we must also strive to mitigate its hardships as a way of life for many thousands of our people.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF THE AGRICULTURAL MIGRATION ON THE ATLANTIC SEABOARD

The passage of migratory workers up the coast begins in significant numbers around the 1st of March and assumes the nature of an irregularly pulsating current. There is a practically constant trickle throughout the spring and summer accompanied by recurrent upsurges synchronized with the completion of the more important harvests in one area and the beginning of important activities in other areas to the north.

The movement is also like a tree in its steady growth upward and its many branches out to the side. The stem of the movement is U. S. Highway 17. Numerous branch roads lead off to the fields. However, in the main, there is no real splitting of the migration from Florida to Long Island. It holds rather closely to a narrow coastal strip up which, aside from the trickle of stragglers that may appear in any area at almost any time, waves of trucks and "jaloppies" loaded with men, women, and children pass at irregular time spacings. A hundred or more such conveyances will pass through Wilmington, N. C. between the 25th of May and June 1. During the week prior and the week after not more than 50 groups will pass up. The heavy passage has come with the end of the potato harvest at Meggett, S. C., and the beginning of the potato harvest in North Carolina. This, and other similar phenomena with reference to other crops, give the movement its pulsating nature.

Two factors operate to hold the wave groups into rather compact formation. The first factor is the rather small restricted areas in which the crops they harvest are produced. This prevents them from scattering widely while they are at work. The second factor is that the harvests in which they work are completed throughout an area at approximately the same time and they can, therefore, move out almost together.

Among the more important waves that pass upward are berry pickers, potato diggers, fruit gatherers, cannery workers, and tomato packers.

Again it is important that we be on guard against oversimplification. What is pictured above is a fundamental pattern. The movement itself is complicated by cross currents, eddies, delays and accelerations. The weather and market conditions are always confusing factors. This year the shortage of rubber tires will affect the movement.

Although it is justifiable to think of the movement as a phenomenon having its inception in Florida, it is erroneous to conceive it a movement of Florida workers. Florida is a point of departure not a point of origin. Workers flock to the Florida muck lands in the early fall from the whole southeast for winter work in Florida harvests. With the approach of spring, this harvest work begins to wane and a large number of laborers from several States are under the necessity of seeking other fields. Of course, native Florida workers are similarly affected and are also present in the movement. This, however, does not make it a movement of Florida workers, as it is almost universally called by farmers.

It is true that most of such organization as is present in the movement has its inception in Florida, as is evidenced by the preponderance of Florida license plates on trucks and jaloppies. On an hours' ride through the Bayboro potato area of North Carolina, the writer counted 98 Florida license plates, 30 from South Carolina, and 6 from Georgia. The safest inference to draw from these facts is that most of the group leaders, who usually furnish the cars, are Florida residents. Even this inference is extremely shaky. It is a substantial fact, however, that the North Carolina Employment Service has the names of 216 migratory group leaders who give their home addresses in Florida.

Even though the migration, as a phenomenon, does present a progressive movement from Florida to at least Long Island, it would be a fallacy to think of it entirely as a movement of individuals throughout the whole length. There

are accessions of new individuals and groups all along the line, as well as a considerable loss of groups from time to time. There is, indeed, strong reason to believe that when the Eastern Shore of Virginia is reached there is a considerable shift toward a higher percentage of North Carolina and Virginia workers and a lower percentage of workers from the deeper South. Very many groups, however, do traverse the whole distance.

There are three main methods of travel and operation. There is, first, the large contractor group under the control of a large operator, who has at his disposal a considerable number of trucks, diggers, and graders. This operating unit may be very large consisting of two or three hundred workers moving up in a caravan of trucks. The contractor will make the employment arrangements for the unit. Ordinarily this contract provides that the contractor will dig, haul, grade, and transport to shipping point the entire crop of a farmer for an agreed amount per unit of product. In this employment pattern, the contractor employs, supervises, and pays the workers.

Another method of travel and operation is the small group that travels in one or two trucks and specializes in one phase of the harvesting process. They may either dig the potatoes from the ground or operate as a grader crew for farmers who have their own diggers. Sometimes, of course, they do both grading and digging. These smaller groups, however, rarely operate as contractors.

A third method is of great importance. Its unit is the family group, its means of transportation the passenger's car. One pattern of operation is individual bargaining with the farmer employer.

The three patterns are differentiated as to group size by the method of transportation. The contractor group is large and moves in a fleet of trucks. The small operator group is smaller and moves in one truck. The family group moves by passenger car.

The migration is composed almost wholly of Negroes. About 60 percent are men and 40 percent women. Family groups are numerous and many children are present.

These migrants are to be numbered by thousands rather than by hundreds. Approximately 5,000 were counted by the Employment Service in North Carolina during the potato harvest of 1941.

These people can, by taking to the road, secure fairly solid employment for about 7 months, interrupted only by bad weather, the need to move from area to area, and occasional miscalculations as to the areas and times of job opportunities. This is preferable to many to the uncertainties of employment at home and will remain so until livelihood at home becomes less precarious.

One other characteristic of this migration is that it is a straightaway progression of over 1,500 miles to the point where it must turn back and retrace its steps. On the way up there job opportunities are quite plentiful. On the way back jobs are almost nonexistent. By far the greater part of the workers deadhead back—all expense and no income.

A RATIONALIZED VIEW OF AGRICULTURAL MIGRATION

1. A recognition that agricultural migrants are not, as a class, people who rebel against stability but are essentially people whose stability of life has been destroyed by forces beyond their comprehension, much less their control.

2. A recognition that the present agricultural pattern is such that only migration can readjust unbalances as to labor needs and supplies.

3. A recognition that the impulse to migration can be canceled only by fundamental changes in the agricultural economy and that long-time cure and not short time restrictive measures should be sought.

4. A recognition that a public obligation arises out of the inability of individual farmers to provide housing and sanitary facilities that will protect the worker and the communities in which they work from contagion.

5. That it is desirable that the possibility of breaking down the present straightaway movement up the Atlantic seaboard into a series of circular movements that will lead workers back to their homes over a course of continuous jobs, be explored.

SUMMARY OF MATERIAL TO BE PRESENTED TOLAN COMMITTEE BY C. W. E. PITTMAN

A changing agricultural pattern

I. *Description of changes in North Carolina.*—(1) A specific example of tobacco farmer; (2) more machinery; (3) empty tenant houses; (4) workers in nearby towns.

Some factors operating to produce change

- I. Increased use of farm machines.
- II. Crop curtailment programs.
- III. Increased importance of vegetables, fruits, and berries.
- IV. Unbalance between tillage and harvest machinery.

How stage is set for migration

- I. Workers subjected to a "push" at home: (1) Fewer jobs.
- II. Workers subjected to "pull": (1) Distant areas of intense activity.
- III. High concentration in small areas creates demand for outside workers.
- IV. Dispersion of production only real cure for migration.

Nature of the problem of migration

I. Temperature, north and south miles, and length of harvest season space crops: (1) Spacing of crop maturities on Atlantic seaboard; (2) danger of oversimplification; (3) functional relationship between temperature, distance, direction, and crop maturities.

II. Agricultural migration based on economic structure and determined by nature itself.

Some characteristics of agricultural migration on the Atlantic seaboard

- I. A constant trickle between March and September.
- II. Pulsating waves of migration synchronized with crop maturities.
- III. Movement limited to narrow strip on seaboard.
- IV. Narrow limits of producing areas and simultaneous ending of activities in all parts of a specific producing area tend to hold group waves into consolidated formation.
- V. Some important waves that pass up coast.
- VI. Necessity to guard against oversimplification: (1) Cross currents, eddies, delays, accelerations, weather and market conditions are complicating factors.
- VII. Florida only a point of departure not the point of origin: (1) License plates discussed, (2) organizing factors.
- VIII. Personnel constantly changing. Many groups to traverse whole distance.
- IX. Three main methods of travel and operation: (1) Contractor groups, (2) small operator groups, (3) family groups.
- X. Composition: (1) Almost wholly Negro, (2) About 60 percent men and 40 percent women, (3) many family groups and numerous children.
- XI. Get about 7 months' work.
- XII. Straightaway movement over 1,500 miles north with fairly plentiful jobs. No jobs on return trip.

A rationalized view of agricultural migration

1. A recognition that agricultural migrants are not, as a class, people who rebel against stability but are essentially people whose stability of life has been destroyed by forces beyond their comprehension, much less their control.
2. A recognition that the present agricultural pattern is such that only migration can readjust unbalances as to labor needs and supplies.
3. A recognition that the impulse to migration can be canceled only by fundamental changes in the agricultural economy and that long time cure and not short time restrictive measures should be sought.
4. A recognition that a public obligation arises out of the inability of individual farmers to provide housing and sanitary facilities that will protect the workers and the communities in which they work from contagion.
5. That it is desirable that the possibility of breaking down the present straightaway movement up the Atlantic seaboard into a series of circular movements that will lead workers back to their homes over a course of continuous jobs, be explored.

STATEMENT BY CHARLES E. HOWARD, ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF
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FARM PLACEMENT PROGRAM FOR NEW YORK STATE, 1942

PRIMARY OBJECTIVE

The expansion of the farm placement services of the United States Employment Service in New York, which is taking place at a time when the demand of the armed services and of defense industries is absorbing a considerable number of workers formerly available for agricultural work, has as its primary objective the pooling and effective utilization of the available labor supply including high-school pupils and workers who may migrate on their own initiative or who may be induced to migrate from certain sections of the State or from outside the State.

RELATIONS WITH FEDERAL, STATE, AND COUNTY AGRICULTURAL AGENCIES

A program designed to accomplish this end will be successful only if it is undertaken with the support of farmers, agricultural organizations, the State College of Agriculture, and Federal and State agencies concerned with the farm labor problems. Consequently, the State farm placement supervisor and the assistant director for Upstate New York are maintaining close contact with the State Agricultural Defense Committee, the State United States Department of Agriculture War Board, State College of Agriculture at Ithaca, which is the headquarters for a number of important State-wide farm organizations, such as the State Farm Bureau Federation, and with the State representative of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, who is also a member of the State Land-Use Committee, the Regional Labor Supply Committee and the State United States Department of Agriculture War Board. The Bureau of Research and Statistics maintains contact with the State Department of Agriculture and Markets for the purpose of collecting and analyzing pertinent data relating to agriculture and agricultural labor market conditions.

The State farm placement representative, district superintendent, and local office managers are responsible for maintaining good working relations with county agricultural defense committees, county land-use planning committees, county farm granges, and individual farmers. The county agricultural defense committees, like their parent body, the State agricultural defense committee, are composed of members of the various agricultural organizations and prominent farmers; they have advisory representatives from various Federal and State governmental agencies including Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Farm Security Administration, United States Department of Agriculture War Board, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Work Projects Administration, National Youth Administration, Selective Service, and United States Extension Service. They are the most active and effective farm group, in the State, dealing with farm labor problems. At the present time they are holding a series of meetings devoted entirely to consideration of these problems and are planning appropriate courses of action to deal with anticipated difficulties of labor shortages during the current year. Technical direction and assistance is provided through the county farm bureaus and representatives of the State College of Agriculture, Cornell University. The State representative of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics assists in clarifying the economic aspects of agricultural labor market problems. The State farm placement supervisor, district superintendents, and local office managers, in whose jurisdictions these meetings occur are attending them as representatives of the Service, advising on the services the United States Extension Service will contribute toward the solution of labor supply problems.

ADAPTION TO COUNTY NEEDS

The farm placement program will be adapted to meet the peculiar needs of the various counties or farm labor areas so that, in effect, there will be a series of programs for such areas, coordinated by the State farm placement supervisor on a State-wide basis.

FACTUAL BASES FOR PLANNING PROGRAM

In expanding the farm placement service in the State, it is our policy to concentrate our major effort in those localities where farm labor problems are most acute, especially with respect to the production of those products that are essen-

tial for defense requirements. So that this expansion may be planned intelligently, the Bureau of Research and Statistics is providing the following basic information:

*Information**Source*

1. General data on farm population, the number of farms, acreage involved, average size of farms, percent of land devoted to farming, value of farm property, and distribution of farms by size for each administrative district of the State and for each county.

2. Number of farms, acreage involved and average size of farms, classified by type of farm (general, dairy, etc.) for each administrative district and county.

3. Lists of 10 leading counties in which 32 farm products requiring hiring of additional labor are important, giving acreage and production.

4. Labor employed on farms during 1 week of March 1940 and September 1939 classified by type of labor, i. e., family, hired by day, month, or week, etc., and total wages paid for each type of labor hired in 1939 for each county.

5. Charts or tables for every farm product requiring temporary hiring of labor at peak seasons, by county, to determine possibility of organizing mobile force to handle needs for each major crop.

6. Charts or tables for each county, listing principal farm products requiring temporary hiring of labor at peak seasons, together with estimates of amount of labor required per acre, or other unit, for each crop. Also, 1941 acreage or production of each crop in each county, with possible 1942 estimates so that a rough estimate of total man-hours of labor required can be determined.

7. Analysis of agricultural placements by local office, by industry and occupation for July to September 1941.

8. Miscellaneous data on farm income, farm wages by county, farm labor supply and demand by county.

9. Summary of January 1942 Farm Work Inquiry for New York State, covering workers and wages in January 1942 by type of labor and total wages paid for labor in 1941.

10. The names and locations of canneries and number of men and women employed in canneries during 1940.

Fifteenth and Sixteenth Census of Population and Agriculture for New York State, 1930 and 1940.

Fifteenth Census of Agriculture (1930) due to unavailability of 1940 data. Also special Agricultural Adjustment Administration Survey of 1941.

Sixteenth Census of Agriculture, 1940.

Sixteenth Census of Agriculture, 1940.

Special assistance of experts of Agricultural Marketing Service, located at Albany, N. Y.

Special assistance of experts of Agricultural Marketing Service located at Albany, N. Y., and special studies made at Ithaca College of Agriculture re man hours to produce selected crops.

ES-212 tabulation and special tabulations.

United States Department of Agriculture, Agricultural Marketing Service at Albany, N. Y.

New monthly questionnaire covering about 1,000 farmers being instigated by United States Department of Agriculture and now in process of summarization by Agricultural Marketing Service in Albany.

Canneries employing 10 or more—United States Census 1940.

Additional information will be assembled from the State College of Agriculture, county farm bureaus, and other agricultural organizations.

These data will provide the basis for planning the program of operations by counties and for indicating those counties where special measures will have to be taken in order to meet the requirements of the "Food for freedom campaign." Seasonal charts are in process of preparation for the principal crops in each county. These charts, together with summaries of data from the studies itemized above, will be sent to the local offices for their guidance in planning operations to meet

the needs of agriculture in their jurisdictions.' They also will provide the State farm placement supervisor with the basic information for planning and coordinating the program.

CURRENT INFORMATION

Local office monthly narrative reports include information on agricultural labor market conditions. As the peak seasons approach, these reports will be supplemented by current reports from local office managers and district superintendents for use by the State farm placement supervisor in directing farm placement operations. While much of this reporting will be on a direct informal basis by memorandum or telephone, the question as to whether weekly and sometimes daily reports on current conditions should be sent to the State farm placement supervisor will be considered. These reports, probably, will cover the following:

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. Crop conditions. | 5. Workers available for referral. |
| 2. Percent harvested. | 6. Current wages paid. |
| 3. Unfilled openings. | 7. Weather conditions. |
| 4. Placements. | |

AGRICULTURAL AREAS NEAR INDUSTRIAL CENTERS

The farm labor problem in a highly industrialized State like New York, which has large defense contracts, must be considered in the light of industrial demand for workers and the shifting of farm workers to industry. Some important agricultural areas have relatively high man-hour requirements for harvesting are located near urban centers having large concentrations of defense industries; for example, Erie and Onondaga Counties in which are located Buffalo and Syracuse, and Wayne County, which is near Rochester.

HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS AS A LABOR RESOURCE

It is in such areas that the employment of urban high-school pupils for harvesting work will be most important. In this connection, the Service, through its experience in handling the placement of pupils from the Rochester high schools during the 1941 harvesting season, has developed the necessary methods and safeguards for the employment of junior workers in harvesting work.

PENDING LEGISLATION

The proposed bill before the State legislature, permitting all high schools to allow pupils 14 years of age and over to be absent for a maximum of 30 days for agricultural employment in 1942, authorizes the State department of education to lay down the conditions under which pupils will be permitted to work on farms during the school year. The State department of labor is responsible for the enforcement of the State labor law with respect to the employment of women and minors. The State and local health authorities are responsible for the enforcement of such health and sanitary regulations as apply to employment on farms.

The United States Extension Service in New York will work closely with these agencies so that standards will be maintained. A compilation of all State regulations will be prepared and supplemented by such operating regulations as the United States Extension Service finds necessary to facilitate the placement of these pupils through its field office organization.

ARRANGEMENTS FOR PLACEMENT DURING SCHOOL TERM

With respect to the mechanics for placing pupils on farms during the school year, the United States Employment Service will make arrangements with local urban authorities so that they will be released at such times as they are needed. At the same time, the United States Employment Service will set up a plan of operation which will include:

1. Notifying farmers in area of availability of urban school pupils.
2. Taking farmers' orders and notifying them of minimum standards for employment and other conditions that must be adhered to in order to protect the health and well-being of the children.
3. Arranging for appropriate points of assembly where pupils will gather in the morning for transportation to the farms.
4. Supervising, at assembly points, the allocation of available workers to farmers and checking to see that minimum standards of transportation are met by the employers.

5. Checking to ascertain whether the pupils have work papers if they are between 14 and 16 years of age, and whether they have written notices of consent from their parents.

6. Following up to determine whether employers are adhering to the minimum standards of employment, including the payment of wages at the end of each day.

7. Making reports to local school authorities regarding operations and problems encountered.

NEW YORK CITY LABOR MARKET

During past years there has been some migration of individual workers and families from New York City to the agricultural regions of the Hudson Valley during the harvesting season. Some of them traveled on their own initiative, others were recruited by labor contractors, and yet others were brought to the farm by the farmer himself on his return from delivering produce to the New York City market.

During the depression years, there was an abundance of such labor, but some serious shortages were apparent during 1941. The Employment Service will undertake organized recruiting in the New York City labor market during the coming harvesting season. A supervisory employee in the metropolitan region will be designated to coordinate recruiting efforts in the metropolitan placement office, and the State Farm Placement representative will coordinate the recruiting with the needs of the various local office areas.

MIGRATORY LABOR

Compared with some of the large agricultural States in the Southwest and West, out-of-State migratory labor is not as important a factor in the New York farm labor market; yet in past years, certain sections of the State, such as the Hudson Valley, Wayne, Oswego, Madison, Chenango and Niagara Counties, have had considerable immigration of farm workers during the peak harvesting seasons. During the 1941 season the number of such workers declined from probably one-third to one-half the number who were available during the previous year. It is reasonable to assume that this supply will be further reduced during the current year. In order to attract such workers during the 1942 harvesting seasons (1) organized recruiting will be undertaken by United States Employment Service; (2) appropriate housing facilities made available at locations convenient to the area of employment; (3) placement organized so as to obtain the maximum possible employment with the least transportation, and then workers moved to other harvesting areas as crops ripen. The season crops pattern by counties will be the basis for this movement, supplemented by current reports from local offices during the harvesting season.

USE OF MOBILE CAMP UNITS

The State Farm Placement supervisor, district superintendents and local office managers are now working on this problem through county agriculture defense committees, county United States Department of Agriculture war boards, as well as with representatives of the Federal Security Administration, which provides migrant camp facilities. Operating policy with respect to the joint agreement between the United States Employment Service and the Farm Security Administration, as outlined in United States Employment Service Operations Bulletin No. C-7, will be carried out through the relationships that the State Farm Placement supervisor, district and local office personnel are maintaining with the county agricultural defense committees, which, as representatives of farmers, decide whether they wish to obtain camps for their respective counties. Representatives of the Farm Security Administration attend these meetings and discuss the conditions under which camps can be made available. So far they have indicated that five mobile units will be allotted to New York State. The time they will set up and their itinerary have not yet been established, but the necessary data for this determination are being prepared. Since more counties have requested such camps than can be serviced by the allotted units, location of camp sites will be determined on the basis of relative needs. Additional personnel, recruited from the areas to be served, possessing first-hand knowledge of local farmers' requirements, will be recruited by the local offices to operate the placement functions of these camps. Such personnel will be supervised by the appropriate local office managers with the assistance of the State Farm Placement supervisor.

TEMPORARY FARM PLACEMENT OFFICES

In some localities we shall supplement the service of local offices by establishing temporary offices in appropriate agricultural centers. This type of service is relatively simple to inaugurate, and we have gathered the necessary experience in one or two localities so that operations should be carried out without much difficulty. So far, county defense committees have recommended that temporary United States Employment Service offices be established in Madison, Wayne, St. Lawrence, Jefferson, and Lewis Counties during the coming harvest seasons. On account of the shortage of regular employees, some of these offices will have to be operated by personnel recommended by and recruited through representative farm groups and agencies.

SHORTAGE OF YEAR-ROUND FARM HANDS

Perhaps the most difficult category of farm labor problems are those resulting from the shortage of qualified year-round men for dairy and general farms. In past years there has been a shortage of such workers even when there were substantial labor surpluses. It has been further aggravated by the fact that this class of workers and potential recruits that under the other labor market conditions would be available for employment on these farms, has been attracted to and is acceptable by defense manufacturing industries. Consequently, any training program would be inadequate because of the lack of sufficient volume of suitable training material. While some trainees might be recruited from the New York labor market, it is doubtful whether many of them could be absorbed as regular farm hands by farm employers. During the past year, an experiment was conducted at the State college of agriculture for the purpose of training Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees for general farm work. They were city youth, and it was found that they could not satisfactorily adjust themselves to the conditions of farm work, nor could the farmers modify their attitudes sufficiently to make the employment of these youth satisfactory to them.

TRAINING FACILITIES

The out-of-school rural youth training program of the State department of education is designed to train rural youth in skills required in operating a farm, especially in respect to the operations, maintenance, and repair of farm machinery. Most of these students are now living on farms so that they do not constitute a net increase to the available farm labor supply. There are approximately 2,000 boys in the 75 centers presently taking this training. The National Youth Administration is training 44 boys at Hartwick, N. Y., for farm work. The curriculum covers dairy, poultry, crop growing, and farm mechanics.

PUBLICITY PROGRAM SUGGESTED

Several county agricultural defense committees have asked for a publicity and educational program designed to emphasize the satisfactions of farming as an occupation to hold workers presently employed on farms and encourage those who have gone to urban industrial centers to return. It is their suggestion that the publicity would have a patriotic appeal as well as point up the fact that the disparity between farm and industrial wages may be offset to a considerable degree by board and lodging privileges. In this connection, it should be noted that the average farm wage with board in New York, as of October 1941, was \$43.75, which was the highest on this date since 1930 and constitutes an increase of 76 percent above the 1910-14 average.

WORKERS FOR CANNERIES

Migratory workers usually are not employed in cannery process operations in New York. In most localities canneries have a following of local housewives for processing and men for the heavier work of loading, unloading, and stocking. Some of these men have gone into defense work in industry or have been inducted into the Army. Last year the Employment Service was called upon to do considerable recruiting both for male and female workers. In some localities such as Rochester and Batavia, the Employment Service recruited and sent the workers to the canneries which are located in nearby areas. It is anticipated that we shall be called upon to do more recruiting this year for the canneries. In this connection, it should be noted that farmers are concerned about migration workers, who come with the Farm Security Administration mobile camps, being employed in cannery

processing. The Farm Security Administration representatives at the county agricultural defense committee meetings assured the farmers that no person or family whose members were employed in an industrial plant of any kind would be housed in these camps.

MECHANICS OF OPERATION

The preparation of appropriate forms, procedures, and instructions to effectuate the farm placement program is a joint responsibility of the State farm placement supervisor and the methods and procedures unit. Such mechanics of operations will have to be developed along with our experience.

TRAINING FARM PLACEMENT STAFF

The training of permanent staff members assigned in local offices to handle farm placement will be undertaken as a joint enterprise of the State farm placement supervisor, State bureau of agricultural engineering representative, who has volunteered his services, and the occupational analysis unit, the latter to assume responsibility for the analysis of farm jobs in the State and the preparation of job description for use by local office personnel. When these are available in sufficient volume, the State farm placement supervisor and a member of the occupational analysis unit will meet with groups of local farm placement interviewers to instruct them in the use of the material. Formal training in farm placement work will be concerned primarily with problems of agricultural labor supply and with the development, by local office personnel assigned to farm placement, of a working knowledge of the farmer's viewpoint.

Dr. LAMB. Mr. Hunter, I have a group of questions for you first, and then when we have completed those there is a list of prepared questions for the panel. I would like to have the members of the panel feel free to amplify your statements or you may feel free to call on them at any point, if you wish.

We have your prepared statement here and I have read it with interest. Some of the questions which are asked here may duplicate your paper, however, since the questions were prepared before the paper arrived.

ADVANTAGES ACCRUING FROM NATIONALIZATION OF SERVICE

The first question is: Will you indicate to the committee some of the advantages accruing from the nationalization of the Farm Placement Service?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes. I think the nationalization of the Farm Placement Service and the whole United States Employment Service has had its measure of advantage in that a closer control is obtained and a more unified employment service is made available to the Nation at large.

Before, we offered a quasi State and Federal system, and the administration of that type of employment service was largely up to the States. Some control and direction was exercised by the Federal Government but on the whole the State was pretty much its own boss.

Now, Dr. Lamb, do you want me to speak specifically on the Farm Placement Service, what has been done recently on that?

Dr. LAMB. Yes; if you would, please.

Mr. HUNTER. We have endeavored to set up a nationalized farm placement service, and, in doing that we have set up certain kinds of operation requiring certain supervision. That supervision at the present time means a farm placement section in Washington to plan and coordinate the staff activities insofar as possible, to obtain cooperation of the Department of Agriculture and other Federal agencies, and to guide the staff program.

In each of the Social Security Board's 12 regional offices we have placed a regional farm supervisor. That supervisor is responsible for the operation of the Farm Placement Service in the States in the Social Security Board's region. He will control and direct, insofar as possible, clearance of labor between States in his region. He will supervise the State's Farm Placement program.

He will be responsible for the efficient operation of the Farm Placement Service within the States in his region. He will also, in a measure, be responsible for the dissemination of information relative to the States within that region to other States and surrounding regions.

We expect to get up, through the various States, reports on labor supply, labor shortages, conditions on wages, conditions on crop maturity, and any other factor that will affect the agricultural program within that region.

That will immediately be transmitted to neighboring regions which might be in the same crop area; for instance, cotton or wheat. In that way they can know what the picture is throughout the whole crop area.

In each State we have placed a State Farm Placement supervisor and he is responsible for the operation of the Farm Placement program within that State.

In each of the presently operated 1,500 full-time local employment offices, we have asked that one or more individuals be designated as Farm Placement officers. We are trying to see that it is properly carried forward and we are trying in every way to give a program that will fit the needs of the State in each region.

The CHAIRMAN. Does your supervisor cooperate with the State?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes, sir.

The CHAIRMAN. Where does the actual recruitment take place?

RECRUITMENT OF LABOR

Mr. HUNTER. In the local employment office. If they have a shortage of labor within that area we have asked this: That first there must be a complete and full utilization of local labor. By that I do not mean going to our active files and saying that we have 300 farm hands registered, but to go out and recruit locally.

In Spanish-American communities they have gone to the priest and service organizations and gone out on the street and recruited. In some places they have gone to women's organizations where women could work in the agricultural field.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you pull any from the W. P. A.?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes. We have an agreement in effect with the Work Projects Administration that any person with an agricultural background will be available to us for use in the agricultural field.

Dr. LAMB. In other words, you consider it the responsibility of Farm Placement Service to provide an adequate supply of farm labor in the war effort?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes, sir; that is right. I don't think that anybody can guarantee that they are going to supply all the labor that is going to be needed within the next 2 years, but we will guarantee we are going to do all we can to supply that labor.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you find reluctance on the part of W. P. A. workers to take farm work?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes; there has been some reluctance on the part of a number of individual workers. In the first place, they have in many cases found some difficulty in going back to their W. P. A. jobs when the temporary work was over, and climatic conditions have interrupted their employment in agriculture to some extent where they can't make as much money as they might have on the W. P. A. project, but on the whole most of them are willing and anxious to take jobs in private industry that will pay them as much as they can make on W. P. A.

Dr. LAMB. What do you consider to be the responsibilities of the Department of Agriculture with respect to the provision of an adequate supply of agricultural labor during the war?

AGRICULTURE DEPARTMENT COOPERATION

Mr. HUNTER. The States have their State war boards, and county subcommittees on agricultural labor. We expect they are going to work in close cooperation with the Employment Service officials. We want one of our members on each of their committees.

We think they can assist us in giving information not only on acreage and crop conditions and estimated production, but in some places we think we can use them where wage scales are clear out of line and the community feels they don't want to go any higher and a neighboring community might be paying a higher wage scale.

I think they can help us get that wage scale to a standard bracket. Outside of furnishing information on labor to employment office officials, not only as to needs but also crop conditions and acreage, and so forth, I think that is about the size of their responsibility in the labor end of the program.

Dr. LAMB. We understand that the Secretary of Agriculture has instructed these farm labor subcommittees to cooperate with you. You would say that this list that you have just given covers the type and extent of their cooperation?

Mr. HUNTER. I think it is about as far as we can go. I wonder if Mr. Stoll or Mr. Gross care to comment on that?

Mr. GROSS. Yes. I think they can be of extreme value in pointing out lack of housing and other facilities to workers and trying to convince growers of the necessity of using the labor that is available in the longest period and not ordering more labor than they actually need, but more nearly gearing the amount of labor actually needed in the harvest or other work with the crop to actual needs, rather than having rough estimates.

Dr. LAMB. Last year we were impressed with the need for more accurately estimating and I think early in the season even some of the farm labor subcommittees in various States were contributing to this situation. I believe in the late part of the season the Department of Agriculture cooperated with them and they repaired their ways and changed their basis for estimating, and this made an appreciable improvement.

GROWERS SHOULD LEARN TO UTILIZE LOCAL LABOR

Mr. GROSS. May I make one other suggestion, Dr. Lamb? I think if they are going to use the Employment Service to its full capacity—and I am frank to say I don't know whether it can meet the full

responsibility that it hopes to meet, because I don't think it is possible for them to go further under a voluntary system than to do all they can to recruit labor—but if we can convince the growers not to go into another field and advertise for people until they have exhausted local labor, and to gear their demands to the needs more nearly and make their actual needs known, including the time of their needs and if they will cooperate with the Employment Service and not engage in promiscuous broadcasting for labor, it will be of great help to the Farm Placement Bureau in utilizing resources.

In the 5 or 6 years I have had connection with the question, I don't believe we have had at any time before, such wide use by growers or growers' organizations. In some cases I think the county agents have not attempted to get the farmers to use the program as much as they might.

I think this educational program is going forward rapidly and they are appreciating the service the Employment Service can render to them in bringing all forces to bear on this problem of utilization of local labor to the greatest degree, which will be of inestimable value.

Mr. LAMB. Do you know of any farm labor subcommittees that have engaged directly in recruiting practices?

Mr. HUNTER. I don't know of any. Perhaps Mr. Stoll could answer that.

Mr. STOLL. Not in our State.

ACCURATE PICTURE OF REQUIREMENTS

I would like to emphasize the statement regarding the Department of Agriculture. In the State of Oregon we have a three-way responsibility for the crop reporting by the Department of Agriculture. The first responsibility is a break-down by acreage, the second responsibility is a break-down by crop production by months throughout the year, and the third responsibility—and this is just new in the last year and a half—is a break-down of operations of each crop throughout the year.

For instance, take your tree fruits, you decide how many people are needed in pruning, how many in spraying, how many in brush disposal and so on throughout the year. That gives the local office the exact picture of what the needs are on an acreage basis, the exact picture of what the needs are on an operation basis, exactly what the time of the starting of the season is, when it is reached, and the peak of the season. When an order comes in for 100 pickers in strawberries and we know the grower only has 10 acres, or whatever it is, we know what it takes in manpower to harvest that crop, we know definitely what the labor needs are.

I might say the crop reporting recently received from the B. A. E. marketing service has been one factor that has eliminated estimation and put the information on the basis of actual needs of farm labor supply.

Mr. HUNTER. I think one more thing should be pointed out there.

In getting your growers' orders, Mr. Stoll—I know we did this in the States I operated—do you not find what his acreage or estimated problem is before you take his orders? In many cases a man will order 100 laborers and he only has acreage enough to probably employ 50, and at the time he placed his order we have found the size of his agricultural labor problem by getting at that.

Mr. STOLL. We do that and in each region have a committee of growers to see that a fair distribution of labor has been made among the growers.

Dr. LAMB. That is an informal committee?

Mr. STOLL. It has been our own. The Employment Service is the labor criterion and this year we are using the subcommittees of the Department of Agriculture.

STATE AND COUNTY AGRICULTURAL WAR BOARDS

Dr. LAMB. Mr. Hunter, what do you understand to be the function of the State and county agricultural war boards in the matter of providing farm labor?

Mr. HUNTER. The State and county agricultural war boards operate in the same capacity as the local labor subcommittees.

They have no responsibility in providing farm labor other than in giving such assistance as they can render to the Employment Service agents in helping recruit spreading information on additional need for local labor or providing the same type of cooperation as has been discussed on the previous question.

Dr. LAMB. Is there any duplication in the operations of the State and county agricultural war boards and the State planning committees?

Mr. HUNTER. I should say that their work probably hinges pretty much on the same thing.

Mr. STOLL. When originally started there was duplication, without question, until it was clarified between the Employment Service and the committees. I think when the original word came out of what they were to do, they took in a lot of territory and felt they could help out, but I think that is all corrected now, after 2 or 3 months.

Mr. HUNTER. That is probably true.

Mr. STOLL. I think that is a question of cooperation between the agencies.

Dr. LAMB. In this general connection I would like to ask whether you think the numbers of local employment offices are sufficient, or the locations adequately widespread, to maintain the confidence of local growers and users of agricultural labor in the Employment Service.

NEED FOR ADDITIONAL OFFICES

Mr. HUNTER. I think there are certain areas throughout the United States in which we need additional employment offices. I can't help but think the majority of employment offices that are set up were set up to serve industrial rather than agricultural needs.

In the States that have a recognized farm problem they are set up to serve agricultural employers. But in the majority of States, where there is an agricultural as well as industrial problem, they need a further spread of employment offices to meet growers' and farmers' needs and we are working on that at the present time.

Dr. LAMB. I have the impression from the work of this committee that one of the problems, perhaps your greatest problem, is the problem of educating both growers and agricultural workers to an understanding of the operations of the Service and the whereabouts of the Employment Service offices, and perhaps there is also an educational problem within the Service, that is, the Employment

Service, of educating the man in charge or those operating the local offices as to the nature of these problems.

It is quite a big educational job, in other words, and you must be consistently struggling with it. Is that correct?

INFORMATIONAL PROGRAM

Mr. HUNTER. I think you are very correct on that statement. We are embarking at the present time on an informational program which should reach a great number of growers and workers, explaining to them what the Employment Service can do. We have a tie-up with the Department of Agriculture press service which extends down into practically every local community and our own information service is carrying a number of stories on the reorganized Farm Placement Service.

We are also requesting each State to submit a plan of operation for its Farm Placement Service to be built up to the State level and then sent to the Farm Placement office for review.

We have definitely a training program in the majority of the States for our own Farm Placement people, which has to be and is being undertaken.

We also have to have a definite informational campaign for both workers and growers, as to what services might be rendered by adequate farm placement.

The CHAIRMAN. You will have to intensify that educational program, won't you, on account of the war?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes; and I think on account of the war that that will be quite easy to do, because we do face a definite curtailment in workers available to agriculture and the various women's land armies and youth movements and others that are being built up will bring a greater realization to the farmer and grower of that fact.

DEFERMENT POLICY FOR FARM WORKERS

Dr. LAMB. Has your office been consulted by the Selective Service Administration on the matter of deferment policy for farm workers, and what recommendations have you made on this matter?

Mr. HUNTER. Our office has had a part in the recommendations, and in this new registration that will take place on February 16, as you know, there will be an occupational question there with the registration.

On there we have listed the certain branches of agricultural work that we feel are necessary for deferment. For example, there will be the number of dairy hands. We are experiencing a shortage on dairy hands in many areas, and milk and milk products are essential to the Nation at this time.

Another one is on farm machine operators and repairmen. In many places we have difficulty in getting and keeping men who can operate farm machinery or repair farm machinery. Those are the items of most importance that appear on there, and which have been taken into consideration.

That question might be partially answered by going back to your local B. A. E. or local subcommittees. They can be of assistance to the Selective Service local board in helping them decide the deferment of these workers.

WORK OR FIGHT LAWS

Dr. LAMB. The committee understands that several States passed "work or fight" laws during the last war, directed in part toward transient laborers. The attention of the committee has been recently directed to the practice of a local defense council in one State, posting placards in agricultural areas which read "work or fight. This means you." Do you know of any such instances, and do you know if they require legislative authority?

Mr. HUNTER. None of those instances have been called to my attention.

Mr. STOLL. I haven't heard of any. I remember some in the last war. I understand in the last war a few States had "work or fight" laws, and in a couple of States those laws are still on the books at the present time.

Dr. LAMB. Members of our staff have seen such a "work or fight" placard and I would rather not say where at this moment, because it might prejudice some of our future investigations or hearings to mention it now.

In the committee's hearings last spring we were confronted with reports on serious impending farm labor shortages. How have these expectations worked out?

Mr. HUNTER. There have been reports in a number of places of shortages of farm labor. Some of those reports are limited to dairy hands in particular. That is one place where I think there has been quite a shortage. On the whole, I don't believe that we have suffered any serious shortage of farm labor during this past year. It has mostly been a shortage brought about by agricultural wage scales, of not being able to compete with the rising industrial wage.

EFFECT OF LABOR SITUATION ON FOOD PRODUCTION

Dr. LAMB. Is it your impression that the food-for-victory campaign will fail to reach stated goals because of farm labor shortages?

Mr. HUNTER. Not particularly because of farm-labor shortages, but because of a feeling on the part of many growers that they won't have labor available. I have reports of planting being hampered in a number of cases because of fear that labor would not be available, but no statement that labor is not available.

Mr. STOLL. In the pea industry and bean industry in Oregon, the growers and planters appealed to us to come forth with information as to the plans for recruiting of labor. There was a definite trend of growers not wanting to plant because they were fearful labor would not be available. We went to every labor subcommittee in the State and explained what the recruiting was in order to get the farmers to plant.

There is a definite feeling on the part of the farmers that they don't want to plant if they can't harvest, and it has taken about a month of educational work in every community throughout the State to try to convince them we were going to try to meet our labor requirements.

Mr. GROSS. That is almost the same in the Rocky Mountain States. We had considerable publicity in the newspapers when farm organizations were meeting in their annual meetings around the

holidays and since, that there was reluctance on the part of farmers to plant in accordance with the food-for-victory request, and we asked the Employment Service representatives who were contacting them to go as far as was possible in assuring them that we did not believe there would be any shortage of labor, that we thought there were many resources that had not heretofore been used that could be called into service.

We could give them no absolute figures, of course, because we had none that would furnish positive assurance that it would be met, but based our statements on the experience of last year. While some of this feeling was evident, I know of no crops in the six States of the Rocky Mountain area where there was any noticeable failure in harvesting crops due to failure of labor. We had some isolated cases where workers were delayed a long time, especially in sugar beets, but I think, by and large, they were met as far as it was possible to meet them.

Mr. HUNTER. Dr. Lamb, the gentleman who just came in is Mr. Denton C. Rushing, regional farm placement representative for Arkansas, Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma.

Would you like a comment from him on that same question?

Mr. RUSHING. I think what the gentleman has just said applies largely to Arkansas. I am not familiar with the other States enough to discuss that very much.

Our difficulty in Arkansas was to get people to realize that a full utilization of the labor on hand was more important than trying to bring labor from here and there, and the local labor committee and I doubt whether the local labor has been as yet fully utilized in Arkansas.

Mr. HUNTER. Has there been any indication of their not planting because of that?

Mr. RUSHING. Not at this time. I might make this comment: That most of the farmers who produce those crops that require quite an amount of outside labor have been working through the Farm Placement Division of the Employment Service for quite awhile and they depend probably more on that Service in that particular State than any other State around it, and we have not had any indication that they are going to fail to plant on account of that.¹

WOMEN'S LAND ARMY

Dr. LAMB. Do you think that a Women's Land Army will be necessary in 1942, and are you in favor of such an army?

Mr. HUNTER. I doubt very much the necessity of a Women's Land Army in 1942 except in areas raising crops of high man-hour requirements, probably tomatoes, snap beans, and so forth. In the harvesting and canning of that type of crop we may have to employ some women. I think such an army may be utilized, but it should be organized on a State-by-State basis, as the need arises, rather than on a national basis.

I think the States can decide how many women they are going to have to employ. Certainly we know that during the harvesting and canning periods we are going to use more women than we did before.

Mr. GROSS. I wonder if Mr. Stoll wouldn't like to talk on that?

¹ See testimony of E. M. Norment, pt. 2, pp. 783 and 789.

Mr. STOLL. We have a census of women now going on in which we are interviewing every single woman in the State which we think covers the problem entirely. The census was organized over a period of 3 months and carried on by an actual interview in the home.

I am speaking, not as a director of Employment Service, but as a representative of the growers and of the labor group. We are not in favor of compulsory use of battalions of women, but we are very definitely in favor of voluntary use. Along with that we are taking a registration of every person from the seventh grade through college in every school, both private and public, in the State.

We have, I think, as complete registration of every woman and every boy and every girl in the State as possible, who can be used as a labor reserve. We have talked to the growers. The growers feel that for certain crops like berries, beans, and so forth, young boys and girls are the best type of labor.

There are two things involved. When you have women and young children go out, and by that I mean from the seventh grade up, you must have supervision. We provided that by a pool of growers actually hiring the teachers to go out in the busses to the fields and back. We probably will have a reserve of labor of women and students of approximately 60,000 in our State. We are taking an actual registration of 300,000 women, the availability running probably 35,000. It is strictly on a voluntary basis. I don't think there is a woman in the State of Oregon who doesn't know the Employment Service exists, because we have gone into the homes and told them. Mary Anderson¹ was out to a recent meeting as our principal speaker and she outlined the Labor Department's attitude about relaxation for age groups and agricultural workers, but we think a compulsory basis is all wrong.

Dr. LAMB. I would like to ask what general effect a Women's Land Army would have upon the agricultural wage structure in your estimation.

Mr. HUNTER. That will be dependent upon several other factors. First, if there is a shortage of labor and a real need for a Women's Land Army, then it should have no bad effect upon the wage scale.

If, however, organization of the Women's Land Army is carried on when there is not a need for it, and employment is offered these people, it will probably operate to depress wage scales.

WOMEN'S LAND ARMY IN LAST WAR

Dr. LAMB. The committee understands that the Women's Land Army in the last war was organized under the supervision of the Employment Service of the Department of Labor, and that placements were made only under approved conditions of work and living, minimum wages, with time and a half for overtime (or the local prevailing wage, whichever was higher), a maximum 8-hour day, and physical examinations. If a women's army were to be instituted during this war, do you think that similar standards should be maintained? If so, what agencies should lay down and enforce the standards?

¹ See testimony, p. 10390, (pt. 27) this volume.

Mr. HUNTER. If the Women's Land Army was to be organized, I think similar standards must be maintained and I think the Employment Service would have to operate in a major role in that capacity, insofar as the employment of these women on farms is concerned. I think it should be our duty to check wage scales being offered, and probably housing conditions, as a part of our work.

As far as the physical examination is concerned, I think that any agency that starts up a Women's Land Army, whether a private organization or some government organization, should be responsible largely for the supervision and physical examinations of those women.

BOYS' WORKING RESERVE

Dr. LAMB. The committee also understands that during the last war some 300,000 boys of pre-draft age were enrolled and placed on farms by the Department of Labor (U. S. Employment Service Branch) through the Boys' Working Reserve; that these boys were given physical examinations, were paid a fair wage (\$30 a month and board being the generally accepted minimum), and their working quarters were supervised to prevent exploitation and loss of education.

If youth are similarly enrolled in agricultural work for this war, do you think that similar standards should be maintained? If so, what agency should lay down and enforce these standards?

Mr. HUNTER. It is entirely probable that youth will be similarly enrolled during the next 2 or 3 years, and I think their standards should be maintained. I know at the present time there is an organization being promoted in New York by Mrs. Kermit Roosevelt, I believe. Youth wants to help. I think that any organization that builds up a group of youth for that purpose should be responsible for the supervision of them.

I think the Employment Service should handle the placement end of it.

Dr. LAMB. You are in favor of clearance of all such workers being made through the Employment Service?

Mr. HUNTER. I am.

Dr. LAMB. And of necessary restrictions being made upon the placement of such workers so as not to destroy the standards?

Mr. HUNTER. Yes. Wage standards and living standards should be maintained.

Mr. STOLL. May I make a comment regarding the actual practice of using youth? We used a considerable number last year and we found no family that would permit their children to go into the voluntary labor reserve, unless they were supervised by persons they had confidence in, and we found the people they had confidence in were the teachers in the schools.

FARM WAGES

They were paid an hourly wage. That was a success of the recruitment of youth. And I might say that large cooperatives and large growers' associations are not thinking in terms of reducing wages for children or women. They are carrying the same standard wage that they are carrying for men in all operations.

Dr. LAMB. I should think two problems would arise, one the problem of peace wages in which people with very little experience are

going to discover that their wages are very small unless some fixed minimum exists, and the other, the effect on the general wage throughout the area of the presence of such volunteers.

For example, I think in areas where shortages are developing you have the problem of the competing wage. Wages in industry are undoubtedly luring people out of agricultural employment. The more you maintain the prevailing wage as a low wage, the more the spread will increase between prevailing wages in agriculture and wages in industry.

This will tend to drain off more and more of your agricultural labor supply, and thus encourage the increase in the volunteer and working reserve supplies, and so tend to make agriculture and industry dependent upon such unusual sources of supply, rather than upon the ordinary sources. Of course, this may be hypothetical.

Mr. STOLL. You are very definitely into that this year. May I say on wages that last year, where we had to recruit probably 10,000 volunteer workers in hops, the tendency was to increase the wage from \$1 to \$1.25 and \$1.50 and \$1.75, and when the volunteer workers finally came in, because of scarcity of labor, it went up 2 cents. There wasn't any question of the wage being reduced.

YOUTH PROGRAM

Mr. HOWARD. Dr. Lamb, I would like to make a comment. Our experience in New York, in one city, Rochester, is that the school board permitted the children to be out on farm work for a maximum of 10 days, in spite of the fact that there was at that time no legislation permitting such work without the loss of State aid funds.

I would like to outline our program, including the wage situation. We arranged with the schools to have the estimated number of students who were required by the growers, on the previous day, to be available at from four to six different assembly points. The growers brought their busses and trucks there and picked them up.

We insisted upon minimum standards in that transportation, such as a seat for every child, that a supervisor had to be present on every truck or bus, that they had to have a supervisor on the job when they arrived, and they had to be paid at the end of each working day on the job and transported back to the place of assembly.

Those students averaged about 7½ to 8 hours actual working time. They harvested beans, tomatoes, and corn. We kept some figures as to their earnings which averaged about \$2.40 a day whether working on an hourly rate or a piece-rate basis.

By and large the comments were very favorable on the performance of these school children.

There is now a bill pending before the New York State Legislature which will permit urban high school students to be absent for an actual period of 30 days for agricultural harvesting work, students of 14 years and over.

We believe that will be the biggest help obtainable in harvesting some of those high man-hour crops, particularly those areas that are located near large urban centers where the local labor supply has already been drained by industry. This will prevent the necessity for a lot of immigration during those periods. And, as to Mr. Stoll's

comment, as a matter of fact, the wages did go up slightly when those students became available, over what had been paid before.

Dr. LAMB. I would like to pursue a related but not identical line.

IMPORTATION OF ALIEN LABOR

During the last war, as you know, immigration restrictions were lowered to permit the importation of Mexicans and Bahama Island negroes, mainly for work in agriculture. Similar requests to lower the bars are now current, particularly in regard to Mexicans. Do you think that the importation of alien labor will be necessary in 1942?

Mr. HUNTER. I doubt very much the necessity of importation of alien labor in 1942.

I believe if proper utilization of local labor is undertaken, that we can supply sufficient labor from within the boundaries of the United States.

I know that we are going to have a definite application from certain growers for importation of alien labor, and know in some instances it may be justified, but for the Nation at large I doubt very much the necessity of importing any great numbers of alien laborers in 1942.

Mr. GROSS. May I say a word in connection with that?

Dr. LAMB. Yes.

Mr. GROSS. We had some requests from Colorado to the Coast last year for both farm labor and certain types of railroad labor, such as track labor, and we were asked in the Employment Service to make checks on it and see what we could find about it.

We had a number of meetings with railroad executives on the situation. There was a charge current at the time that W. P. A. labor was not taking their jobs and the W. P. A. Administration was not making an effort to get them to take it. We didn't find that to be a fact.

COOPERATION FROM RELIEF AGENCIES

We found there was every cooperation from the C. C. C., W. P. A., and N. Y. A.. We found the greatest difficulty was they were placing orders for labor in San Francisco for track laborers in Nebraska, and when we got them to break it down and go to the nearest offices, it obviated the question of boarding out on the job, by utilizing labor closest to the spot, and we found that breaking up homes and moving labor long distances was entirely unnecessary.

I don't believe I can point to any instances where, when they went to the Employment Service nearest to the point of use of the labor, there were actually any unfilled orders for any long period of time, and I know of no instances where there was any reluctance on the part of W. P. A., C. C. C., or N. Y. A., even to the point of closing projects, to cooperate immediately.

There were some questions of wage differentials, northern and southern scales, and breaking at some determined point, and the question of the board and room charge that sometimes reduced the amount of net earnings of a worker, by compelling him to pay board and room far from home, when by better planning labor closer to home could have been better utilized, and in many instances there would be no problem at all.

Dr. LAMB. What agency do you think should have the definite responsibility for deciding whether the importation of alien labor is necessary?

RESPONSIBILITY FOR IMPORTATION OF ALIEN LABOR

Mr. HUNTER. I think that responsibility should fall directly upon Employment Service. That organization can best decide whether there has been a full utilization of local labor and decide whether labor is available in neighboring areas without the necessity of going beyond the confines of the United States.

Dr. LAMB. While employers of Mexicans and other alien labor have contended they were necessary, other groups in the community have argued that such labor is exploited to the detriment of existing wage standards, creating serious problems of relief, health, and so forth. Can you recommend how the demands of the employers might be met without imposing burdens on others in the community?

Mr. HUNTER. I know those remarks were made in relation to the importation of Mexican labor. I had experience with that last year myself in Arizona.

During that time we talked with the Mexican consul and they were definitely against importation of their people from old Mexico, claiming that many of them were lost, they did not return; that the wage scales offered them were lower and served to depress the wage scales in those communities; and many other facts of that kind.

That came also from relief agencies definitely opposed to the importation of workers. I think the employers' demands for importation of workers can be met by a definite utilization of labor that is available, I mean local labor, and by pointing out the necessity of maintaining a wage scale that is at least comparable with that being paid in a community.

I think those largely are the methods by which you can meet the employers' requests for that type of labor by better utilization of that local labor, and by recruiting that labor to serve their needs rather than importation of alien labor.

Mr. GROSS. May I make an explanation in connection with the question you have just raised, that at a meeting in San Francisco in January, to which the Farm Placement representatives of 12 Western, Pacific Coast, and some of the Rocky Mountain States were called together, there appeared at that meeting a representative of one of the large sugar processing companies and a representative of the so-called Agricultural Chamber of Commerce.

The representative of the Agricultural Chamber of Commerce felt they ought to bring in some nationals of the Republic of Mexico, and the beet sugar representative said that with 20 years of experience he would strongly recommend against it, that a number of years ago his company brought in 1,000 and he just had succeeded in getting the tenth one out of the country, and that one they got out of the penitentiary in California and sent back.

He said the experience was that they did not go back, that they were not as valuable as they were recommended to be when they first came up, and that they did create a serious problem which he felt it was not necessary to create until we had exhausted all possibilities of local labor.

LABOR INVENTORY IN UTAH

In that connection I would like to make one other observation that I think you will be interested in, and that is that the labor inventory or registration that Mr. Stoll spoke about in Oregon has been duplicated to some extent recently in Utah because of the fact that we have had a large number of defense plants or governmental operations that have come into the State, creating somewhat of a labor-market problem in Utah.

We decided on this inventory and used the list of employees under unemployment compensation. It gave us an almost complete picture of industrial conditions.

In order to augment this in Salt Lake City, Provo, and Ogden, we took in every fifth or seventh or tenth house in the metropolitan area of the city and canvassed the home folks. We were surprised to find in this canvass—and it included of course many who probably would not be available because of age or infirmities to work in agricultural labor—a willingness of 80 percent of the people to engage in farm labor work, people not regularly attached to the labor market.

This did not include children below 14 or 15. About 80 percent of those people we found were not currently registered in the employment service because they had no direct contact with the labor market. This survey indicated potentially 25,000 to 30,000 people in Utah that might be pulled into the farm labor market if there was an acute shortage.

Through the church organization, which is very extensive and cooperative in Utah, they have used that type of labor in years gone by. They have also used, through cooperation with the Indian Service, quite a number of Indians off the reservations to meet emergencies.

In view of that situation and the further fact that the employment service is keyed so a similar occupational census can be taken whenever needed without any burdensome delay, we have a strong feeling from this experience; first, that we ought not to think of opening immigration until we have fully utilized what we have at home; secondly, we have been telling the industrial employers that to meet the needs of skilled labor they must use older people as long as they are able to work, and there must not be discriminations on the part of the employers as to race, color, and creed.

Still you have some sections of the country where they will ask you for labor on the basis of nationality or groups and want them exclusively. We are trying to get them to take what the market affords and judge people on the basis of their ability to do the job.

Dr. LAMB. Can you suggest ways, Mr. Hunter, in which existing labor on farms can be more fully utilized?

BETTER UTILIZATION OF EXISTING LABOR

Mr. HUNTER. Yes, sir. There are three or four examples I would like to bring out in which existing labor on farms can be better used. Farm Security Administration has a number of clients who have small farms. These farms do not take their full time and during certain periods of crop harvest or peak seasonal activity you can get a partial use of their services on farms.

One thing more. Many growers have periods of unemployment, 2 or 3 days in which they are not working, and the farm labor remains idle during the harvest season. There could be a shifting of that labor to neighboring or other growers where it could be utilized.

Now, when farmers or growers are through with their labor, if they will notify the Employment Service a little in advance, we can make arrangements to shift those workers to neighboring areas without attendant loss of time.

I think those are some of the main points on the better use of farm labor.

It rests largely on the organization, advance notification of termination of employment for workers so they can be spread to needed areas, and full utilization of people who are employed part time on their own farms.

Mr. GROSS. May I make a comment on that?

Dr. LAMB. Certainly.

LACK OF COOPERATION

Mr. GROSS. In connection with the labor inventory we took in Utah, we made an experiment on two or three Rural Free Delivery routes working out a brief questionnaire that we sent to them. The distribution was good and we secured almost complete coverage on the routes to get the information you have alluded to in your question to Mr. Hunter as to whether they were making full utilization of their labor. In this questionnaire we found out whether they were attempting to cooperate to make their own labor available to others, and also, because of the probability that there were some instances where they did not require full-time workers, to utilize part-time workers rather than bring people in, because of economic conditions.

We have not yet been able to find a way to get a good answer to that type of inquiry. The return was almost negligible notwithstanding the Governor issued a proclamation calling on all people to cooperate and we came to an honest conclusion that it is due principally to the lack of education.

Most of these people felt they met their own problem without any trouble and they were not particularly interested in giving information about their conditions to help somebody else. We felt we had to go back in that situation and do a little educational work with them.

Mr. STOLL. In our women's survey we are taking not just the cities but every rural community, the agricultural women, the wives of growers, so we are covering every person both in the rural and urban sections. Out of that survey we have the answer.

One very important study is now being carried on by the Department of Agriculture, in which they are interviewing the people on the ranches and farms, requesting them to tell how many more hours the farm family is putting in. We think that will be invaluable to us. The one part of labor requirements we have never been able to pin down is how much farm labor is used by the family on the farm.

TENDENCY TO ASK FOR MORE LABOR THAN REQUIRED

Mr. GROSS. Mr. Stoll, whenever you have supplied a grower with labor in response to his request, you have always tried to ascertain what he had himself and take that out of his total needs, haven't you?

Mr. STOLL. I think that has been one of the biggest faults in the agricultural program, because the grower is always putting in a bigger order than he wants in the hope he may get 1 out of 10.

Dr. LAMB. Do you think there is a tendency for farm employers to adhere to the depression wage levels in present wage payments?

Mr. HUNTER. I think so, definitely. During the last 10 years we have had an oversupply of agricultural labor, which we have come to regard as normal. That has driven down wage scales to the point where the grower felt the wage scale being paid is a normal wage scale, and I think in every case they are endeavoring to adhere to that. They still regard the depression-era wage scale as the present wage scale, in the majority of cases.

Dr. LAMB. To what extent would you say that complaints of farm labor shortages, for example, during the last year, have been a reflection of the inadequate wages and working conditions?

Mr. HUNTER. I think the majority of complaints received last year on farm labor shortages had their base in the fact that proper housing and proper transportation conditions were not being met.

LABOR SHORTAGES BASED ON WAGE SCALE

I don't know, personally, of any case last year where the cry of labor shortage arose that was not more or less a case of inadequate wage scale, or of not providing housing or transportation facilities. Practically every case might be traced directly back to those causes.

Mr. STOLL. I would like to make a comment to clear the record so far as the Oregon growers go. We had a wage scale which was very comparable in many cases to actual wage scales in construction work. Our pea growers were up to 50 cents, and I think it is unfair to classify that group of growers as using subnormal wages.

The wages were very good. When you talk scarcity of labor, an increase in the wage scale of 5 cents an hour will do away with the scarcity. Our growers did realize that and raised the wage. They very definitely, without exception, met the wage scale to compete with industry.

Dr. LAMB. I know in some parts of the country the wages are beginning to compare with industrial wages. I know also that in some States the differential between different parts of the State for the same kind of work is still very marked.

Mr. PITTMAN. May I ask a question, as to whether we are participating in a panel where the various subjects are being brought up—

Dr. LAMB. These first questions, as I explained before you came in, are addressed to Mr. Hunter and I have one more to ask before we turn to the panel.

The next set of questions are to be asked of the panel and all members of the panel are expected to reply, or those whose interests are essentially affected by the matter in the question.

I have one more question for Mr. Hunter and then the questions will follow along in that fashion.

Mr. PITTMAN. I wanted to be clear in my mind whether I ought to be participating more liberally than I have been up to now, or whether later on I would have an opportunity to present some of the problems of an area that has not been very heavily involved so far.

EFFECT OF MINIMUM WAGES

Dr. LAMB. Do you think the extension of minimum wages to farm labor would stabilize the agricultural labor supply and reduce the incentive to migrate to industrial centers?

Mr. HUNTER. I do not think that a minimum wage would. In practically every case where minimum wages are established they are regarded as maximum wages, and any establishment of a minimum wage tends to leave the impression that is a maximum wage.

As wage scales rise in other industries there would not be a tendency for them to rise in agriculture, because we have a minimum scale established and that is the scale and it probably wouldn't meet the scale from industry.

Dr. LAMB. That is all I have.

Mr. ARNOLD. Mr. Hunter, I might direct most of these questions to you and you might designate who is to answer them.

Mr. HUNTER. All right, sir.

INTERSTATE CLEARANCE OF FARM LABOR

Mr. ARNOLD. Who controls the clearance of farm workers among States, and, is this the responsibility of the regional representatives?

Mr. HUNTER. The clearance within the State is, of course, controlled by the State clearance officer. When it goes beyond that it is taken to the regional clearance officer and our regional farm placement representative will, of course, work with the regional clearance officer.

Mr. GROSS, would you like to expand on that a little?

Mr. GROSS. Beyond that there are in contiguous areas, established clearance units, States that border each other or where natural trends of labor are brought together, so they exchange between themselves.

Mr. ARNOLD. This is directed to Mr. Stoll. Will you describe recent clearing arrangements for workers as between California and Oregon?

Mr. STOLL. We have had the problem of bringing up workers from California to work in strawberries. Our season follows directly after the California season and there usually is a surplus of labor there. We found that recruiting could not be done by asking these people to come up on their own. They were practically broke. We made a pool among growers to pay for transportation from California to Oregon on a credit card basis where the machines were filled up with gas and brought in. We brought in approximately 3,000 workers.

Of course, whenever you have a movement like that you have a lot of people coming on their own without being paid to come in. The fact that the California Employment Service did the recruiting definitely helped us. We handled them through our mobile farm camps when it came to this end.

Mr. ARNOLD. How do you think you would be able to take care of the rubber situation by cards this time?

Mr. STOLL. We are not looking for any migration of workers from California into Oregon this year. We are planning our program to take care of our own labor problem within our State. We don't

think there will be any migration other than the usual migration except possibly in the beet thinning in April.

Mr. ARNOLD. We know that the employers in many States are interested in keeping their labor supply close to home. Do you find the local pressures have interfered with interstate clearance procedures?

Mr. HUNTER. I will give that to Mr. Pittman who has probably had more headaches on that than anyone else.

SOUTH CAROLINA BARRIERS TO MIGRATION

Mr. PITTMAN. I speak more definitely of the southeastern area of North Carolina dealing with southern farmers and southern Negroes. We have in North Carolina a strawberry producing area bordering the South Carolina line. We need those South Carolina Negroes to harvest our strawberries.

Last spring I requested that a representative of the South Carolina Employment Service meet me in Mullins, S. C., to discuss the movement of labor from South Carolina into North Carolina. I was met there by an official of the South Carolina service who informed me that they had a ruling from their attorney general which not only prevented individual employers or truck operators from moving labor out of South Carolina, but also prevented the South Carolina State Employment Service from moving labor out of the State.

Then the gentleman went on to state, "We have plenty of Negroes here that need those jobs and I hope you get them." We didn't go after them but our farmers went after them and got them. That is an example of what some of these State laws are, in regard to interstate movement of labor.

PIRATING OF LABOR BETWEEN STATES

Now, in order that you won't think that I am assailing South Carolina too much, I will tell you that in North Carolina we did almost the same thing. During our strawberry season, at the very height of it, after the farmers and employment service had recruited labor, three trucks came down from Virginia under cover of darkness and recruited help. We found later they had sent advance agents in there for 2 or 3 days who had circulated in the fields. Those trucks came in one night and attempted to move out with workers from the North Carolina strawberry fields, and a local officer arrested those truck drivers. In order that you won't think it is confined to North Carolina and South Carolina, the same thing has happened in Virginia and Maryland. We have that background of objection to this interstate movement of labor down there and it is pretty deeply imbedded in the minds of the farmers.

Mr. ARNOLD. Do they have any support in State law?

Mr. PITTMAN. Oh, yes. I don't know what the effect of that law is as it would apply to the Employment Service. The State laws of North Carolina and Virginia allow the Employment Service to recruit labor and send it out of the State, but nobody else can do it. The South Carolina attorney general says their law does not permit even the Employment Service to do it.

Now, there is another angle that I was going to bring out just now when you were discussing wage rates. North Carolina sent 1,607 individuals out of the State to Virginia, Maryland, New Jersey, and New York last year. Most of those individuals have come back.

WAGE DIFFERENTIALS

I speak of them as individuals. We sent them out as groups. One of those groups came back to our Rockingham office last fall after the work was over and said "I want you to send me back up north next season."

That man went on to say that he and two members of his family had saved \$400, and that four members of his group had bought automobiles. That is an evidence of affluence that is very rare among southern farm workers. And it spread. He told all of his neighbors about it and wrote to all of his friends and told about it. In other words, that idea has spread, not only in this particular community but in many other communities from which laborers were sent out by the Employment Service to the north.

There is a wage differential. We have had something to say this morning about competition between farmers and industry, but we have problems and headaches with agriculture itself, so far as wage scales and wage structures go. Those Negroes that were sent up North got anywhere from two and a half to three times as much wage as they would have gotten had they stayed in North Carolina.

Now, it became easier later in the season to recruit workers to go out of North Carolina to these higher wages in the north and to recruit them from the North Carolina fields.

What we are talking about here is not a shortage nor a surplus of labor. We are talking about a wage structure. At least some of the employers in these States know now that there is an employment service in the State of North Carolina that will and can recruit and send labor to them. One of our offices already has an order for 400 harvest hands to move into Delaware sometime right around the first of April. Where we had an opportunity to send hundreds out last year I am quite certain that we will have an opportunity to send thousands this year.

In the meantime we have organized in most of our counties, or at least the Department of Agriculture has, local farm mobile committees, and we are definitely bending all of our efforts to working closely with those committees.

Now, the point will come somewhere—I don't know just where—that when you start moving labor out of North Carolina, somewhere you will come to the place where the movement out has assumed proportions great enough for the farmers to become aware of it and for it to begin to pinch them. That is what I see ahead in North Carolina and Virginia this year.

NORTH CAROLINA AND VIRGINIA AS SOURCES OF FARM LABOR

We definitely have reason to believe that North Carolina and Virginia are coming to be looked upon as a source of farm labor. That is right; it should be. But I feel very much that this opportunity to move workers out of the State will assume such proportions

that we will hear from our local labor committees and our State committees. I think very definitely it is a problem that confronts us and I am sure Mr. Hunter knows the answer to it and can tell us exactly how to handle it, but that is the general background and one specific problem that is arising.

Mr. ARNOLD. That will probably force higher wages in North Carolina or they will lose all of their labor.

Mr. PITTMAN. It is a question of the destruction of a wage structure rather than a labor shortage or surplus.

I think the problem can be worked out and the North Carolina crops harvested, but the North Carolina farmers, so they say, and they are probably right, will have to get more money for their crops. It is quite evident that North Carolina farmers have not gotten wealthy through the fact that they have had a low wage scale.

Mr. HUNTER. Mr. Pittman has brought out two facts, the wage scale and the State laws prohibiting clearance of labor outside of those States.

I think we only have about 12 States with laws prohibiting clearance of labor at the present time. Where wage scales are equal or standard, the clearance system in those other States does work quite well.

STATE LAWS PROHIBITING SOLICITATION OF LABOR

Mr. ARNOLD. Have you ever found that State laws or local ordinances prohibiting the recruiting or soliciting of labor for use outside the State interfere with the clearance work of the Service? If such laws or ordinances were actively enforced, would they interfere with the clearance work of the Service?

Mr. PITTMAN. When we were recruiting labor, I believe to pick peaches in New Jersey last year, one of my workers went to a little town and met somewhere on the highway or near the place the conveyance that was being sent down by the New Jersey farmer. He left his car with his coat and all his papers in it by the road, and got in the truck with this New Jersey person and went into a little town—I don't remember the name of it now—and started helping to round up the Negroes to take them back into New Jersey.

Some of the farmers in that area became alarmed and they called the sheriff of the county up. The sheriff came over there and asked my man who he was and he told him he was working for the Employment Service but he didn't believe him apparently. He didn't have his papers. The sheriff carried him to the county attorney's office. They did not actually put him in jail. There my man got me on the telephone and I couldn't understand what he was saying. He was frightened, I reckon.

The county attorney finally told me he said he was an Employment Service employee, but he had nothing to prove it and they had him for recruiting labor to move outside the State. Of course, I identified him and they turned him loose.

PRIVATE LABOR CONTRACTORS

Mr. ARNOLD. Has the private labor contractor been more active in your area in the past year, and what problems if any, has he created for your new operations?

Mr. HUNTER. I think I will have Mr. Howard of New York answer that one. I think he has had some experience with labor contractors in the past year.

Mr. HOWARD. Labor contracting is a substantial practice in New York and a substantial number of farm laborers are recruited and placed on farms through their operations.

Many farmers who have dealt with these contractors for years, because they know their requirements, think they are quite satisfactory. Some malpractices obviously are common to labor contracting in many places, and there was one contractor who had, through his son in Columbia, S. C., recruited some Negroes and he had them quartered in places that, according to the New York State laws, were unsanitary, and he was fined and had to pay the transportation of those workers back to South Carolina. It cost him about \$500.

One thing we find is, that when they are conveying workers in their trucks they have no casualty insurance. When the high-school students were released in Rochester, N. Y., for special work on farms, those contractors endeavored to have us place workers through them. We did only once, and we stopped the practice immediately because we found they were not meeting the minimum standards with respect to transportation, supervision, and payment that we felt necessary for the protection of these youths.

Mr. PITTMAN. May I ask a question as to just what the labor contractor is? Is he a person who employs labor somewhere and turns that labor over to someone else, or is he someone who recruits and uses that labor?

Mr. HOWARD. I might say that most contractors do not get their workers outside of the State. In Erie County, in which Buffalo is located, many of the vegetable growers are people of Italian extraction. They have their friends in the city and Italian labor contractors have for years been supplying workers from the city of Buffalo to the farms in Erie County. I don't know to what extent labor contractors are getting workers from outside the city or State. I have no accurate information on that and I can find no agency that has such accurate information.

The general practice is that the labor contractor delivers the workers to the farms. The farmer pays him a certain rate and he in turn pays his workers after he takes whatever he thinks to be the cost of his operations and his profit. It is largely a delivery of farm workers to actual farm operators.

Mr. PITTMAN. I think there is a significant difference there in what some of us at least are thinking.

LABOR CREWS

We have one pattern of labor contractor that we think is beneficial to the farm worker and the farmer himself. He starts harvesting potatoes in Florida and has around \$5,000 to \$10,000 invested in trucks and digging machines.

Some will start up the coast with 200 or 300 employees. And he moves as a convoy or fleet of trucks and brings those people along with him. He gets them to a potato area and contracts the digging of potatoes.

He says, "I will dig your potatoes for 15 cents a hundred pounds." He will dig them out of the ground, pick them up, grade them, and put them at the shipping point for so much a hundred.

This contractor furnishes his own labor and pays his own labor. The farmer has nothing to do with the labor.

Mr. ARNOLD. Let me ask you this: Does the farmer have this contract much in advance, so he will know he can get the work done?

Mr. PITTMAN. Often that is the standing employment relationship that has lasted over a period of 5, 6, or 7 years.

The observation of the Employment Service has led it to believe that most of those big operators look after their labor pretty well. The labor that works for them really has a little bit better care and attention than some laborer that comes up without such care and organization, so we have felt that perhaps that type of labor contracting ought to be encouraged. He occupies the same position in agriculture, it seems to me, that the highway contractor occupies when he builds a highway.

Mr. ARNOLD. Mr. Howard, you were not saying the labor contractor in New York did not perform a service for both the grower and laborer?

Mr. HOWARD. Oh, no.

Mr. HUNTER. I wonder if Mr. Rushing would care to make a statement about the Oklahoma-Arkansas-Kansas area?

COTTON PICKERS

Mr. RUSHING. No, sir. We are not bothered with that. The only thing we have that even approaches that are trucks that haul the cotton pickers out of Memphis, and the employer pays the worker so much a pound or so much a day, and then pays the truck so much a head for hauling them out and so much a pound for each pound of cotton they pick. We don't have labor contractors, aside from that, in Arkansas.

I am not familiar enough with the other States to go into that.

Mr. HUNTER. Mr. Gross, would you care to say anything about sugar beets?

TWO TYPES OF CONTRACTORS

Mr. GROSS. We have two types of contractors, one who contracts for the labor and provides transportation and turns them over to the grower, enough to meet his needs, and the other type who will contract with the farmers or canning companies. Where the canning company has bought, in the field, a certain amount of produce, it contracts with the labor contractor who hires the workers and pays them himself, deducting a percentage of what he gets for himself.

Farmers, and some of the cannerymen, argue when you get people of all one nationality together, they work better and the supervision is better, and they are relieved of the responsibility.

Some awfully bad practices have been reported in certain sections, of people absconding with the money and not paying the workers, and hiring them at very low rates. This has occurred where the local people were not eligible for various types of relief and were almost destitute. We have also had stories of excessive hauling charges and things of that kind.

I think when the Employment Service has made contact with the canning companies or processors, they have made a marked improvement in that situation by breaking up some of the bad practices because they can furnish workers directly. There are no regulatory laws in any of the States of my region.

Mr. HUNTER. Mr. Stoll has had that in previous years.

Mr. STOLL. We have no labor contractors. We used to have a large number of them. The Employment Service local offices are the labor contractors in the State. They assume all the responsibility a labor contractor would assume.

Mr. GROSS. Are they prohibited by law?

Mr. STOLL. They have to get licenses.

Mr. ARNOLD. In any of the areas that any of you represent, have the labor contractors ever cooperated with or utilized the Employment Service?

Mr. PITTMAN. In North Carolina they come to us quite often and say, "We want to use North Carolina labor if we can get it. We don't want to take labor from South Carolina if we can help it."

ADVERTISING FOR LABOR

Mr. ARNOLD. Are you able to exercise any control over indiscriminate job advertising by private labor contractors or other groups in your region?

Mr. PITTMAN. Only by persuasion. There are restrictions on advertising for labor by plants having defense contracts. I don't know whether a penalty is attached to it, but they are expected to be cleared within local employment offices and to advertise only in approved areas where they are not liable to pull workers away from other defense efforts. Up until last year it was not very effective.

Mr. HUNTER. There is one thing more to that. A number of private individuals have sent out their publicity and their advertising and in such cases the Employment Service can do this: It can check back with the State from which that advertising emanates, to find out exactly what the job opportunities are and what the local conditions are, and then advise the local people.

Mr. GROSS. I should like to make one observation here. There was a complaint, especially last year and the year before, from California, that in certain instances when labor was brought from California into the Rocky Mountain States, those responsible for the attempts to bring labor in for agricultural work would give the Employment Service an order in the local community which it would transmit to California, the order providing for a certain wage rate and certain conditions of housing and certain agreements as to transportation.

I remember one distinct case where they said at Sacramento that a private fee-charging agency across the street carried a placard offering more liberal wages, better transportation, and better housing facilities for the same job.

Some States charge that that type of advertising is not always factual. That is, when the workers actually get on the job conditions are not as represented.

Mr. ARNOLD. Attention of the committee has been called to the fact that State employment services themselves have indulged in uncontrolled radio advertising. Do you know of such practices by employment offices?

Mr. HUNTER. That used to be true, but our informational service has issued definite instructions prohibiting or regulating such advertising.

EFFECT OF OVERADVERTISING

I had some experience on that 3 or 4 years ago in which an order was placed with a neighboring State and they immediately went on the radio and broadcast that order. We ordered 500 men a day and got about 5,000 a day. We immediately contacted that same employment agency and the conversation was not very pleasant, but as it ended, there was no more radio broadcasting and newspaper advertising.

While those things have occurred from time to time I think it is 2 years since anything has occurred like that.

Mr. GROSS. Sometimes orders are given to the United States Employment Service and are put to clearance, and at the same time the people giving the orders were advertising through other agencies in other areas.

One of the reasons for utilizing the clearance system and better control was to prevent duplicate orders being given at the same time, which tended to bring in more workers than we needed and thus hurt other areas. An employment service, of course, has the responsibility of comparing the orders they get against the local conditions.

Dr. LAMB. Mr. Rushing, did you have something to say as to the previous question with respect to indiscriminate job advertising by private labor contractors?

Mr. RUSHING. I was thinking of an amusing thing that happened.

We use post offices quite frequently as a means of distributing information about advance notice of orders. Last year a lot of private concerns decided they would do the same thing. All their material landed back in my office, or the local employment offices. They said, "We don't know anything about this, we know you people do this and we are turning it over to you." It was amusing to me, the way that worked out.

Mr. ARNOLD. It appears that the farm labor subcommittees of the State land-use planning committees in some areas are making determinations of the need for farm labor.

FUNCTIONS OF SUBCOMMITTEES

What do you understand to be the functions of those subcommittees in farm placement work?

Mr. HUNTER. The subcommittees in farm placement work can make a determination of the acreage, estimated production, and probably the man-hour requirements for harvesting certain types of those crops on a local basis.

I should limit it to that. As far as an estimate on the need is concerned, there are so many factors that will come in to change that need, between the time the estimate is made and the time of the actual need of those workers, that any forecast is apt to be upset.

Weather conditions, insect infestation, or both of those, may change the picture entirely, and if it is broadcast or publicized in any way, it often results, in periods of adequate labor supply, in bringing an

influx of workers in that are not needed. I think that it should be handled through the employment office and not through the sub-committees.

They can take care of the estimates of possible production and the man-hours for harvesting and give us the information and let us decide the needs.

Mr. STOLL. We feel that the local committee should in no case give out statistical information. We have worked with the Department of Agriculture, bringing it down on a local basis through crop reporting and the B. A. E. and that is factual, based on the estimate of growers and county agencies and so forth.

We feel a great deal of trouble could be caused by a local committee giving out statistical information. We had that on a county basis and it was never very far off.

Mr. HUNTER. Then we have an agreement with the Agricultural Marketing Service to provide that statistical information on a State basis.

STATISTICAL RELATIONSHIP UNIT

Mr. ARNOLD. In its first interim report the committee critically examined the farm labor supply and demand statistics of the Agricultural Marketing Service. They were found to be based upon purely subjective unverified opinion. The committee recommended that an adequate reporting system be set up in the Farm Placement Service. What mechanisms have been developed in your region to provide objective reports of farm labor supply and demand?

Mr. HUNTER. The agreement I spoke of a moment ago has been reached with the Agricultural Marketing Service to give us as much information as they can on what the acreage and labor demand will be. That is done on a State basis. That is handled through the Employment Service Statistical Relationship Unit. Daily and weekly reports are drawn up on that and go out to the State head and are then transmitted to the regional office head.

Mr. ARNOLD. Do agricultural employers concentrate their recruiting efforts outside your service, or do they appear willing to follow your direction in farm labor recruiting?

Mr. HUNTER. I think we should have an expression from the group on that. I think Mr. Stoll has an example where most of the agricultural employers go through his Employment Service.

INCREASED USE OF SERVICE

Mr. STOLL. We have a definite agreement with all of our agricultural interests that they will use the Employment Service. I would say that probably 85 to 90 percent of all labor is recruited through the Employment Service offices.

When it comes to day labor, that is recruited in many cases through adjoining families and in many cases they go out and try to get them themselves. I think that is one weakness in the whole farm labor program, the actual year-round workers on the farm. The seasonal problem is simple. The actual year-round operators of machines and milkers and so forth is the difficult thing.

Mr. HUNTER. The Agricultural Marketing Service will furnish us information on labor that is on farms at the present time, the family

labor and labor of that type. I think on the whole that grower cooperation with the Employment Service is becoming a great deal better than it has been in the past years and a larger percentage of them are placing their orders with Employment Service and, as the labor stringency develops, we will get more and more of those orders.

Mr. GROSS. I think that is the answer in our region. Several years ago, when an abundant supply of labor was available, farmers made little use of the Employment Service, but we now have an increasing amount of use of Employment Service on the part of people wanting agricultural workers.

Mr. PITTMAN. I would like to make this observation, based on my experience in the four States of my region. Our problem has not, for some time, been chiefly that of interesting the farmers in what we are trying to do for them. We have not experienced any difficulty in securing orders for labor. That has been comparatively easy.

Our difficulty in these four States—and I believe it applies to the Southeast, all of it—the really difficult part is concerned with the labor supply, where it is, what type of workers there are, what it takes to get them from where they are to where they are needed.

LABOR SUPPLY IN THE CAROLINAS

For the past 2 years we have told our men to devote most of their time to the study of the labor supply and, in North Carolina, during last year, we sent our men to over 200 concentrations of potential farm labor workers.

Now, those concentrations are around our towns, big towns and little towns. There will be four or five little concentrations of our Negro farm workers around each of the towns. It is also dispersed or diffused almost completely throughout and around the producing areas in little communities whose names don't even appear on the map. I will name two or three of them to give you an idea of the sort of communities they are. One is called Red Bug. Any of you from the South know what a red bug is. Another is Rosebud and another is Licksillet—names that don't appear on the map. There is where most of the immediately available farm labor in the Southeast is.

Those people in those little rural communities are the ones who do most of the farm work and who would go to the bigger towns at considerable distances, when we need a large number of people for seasonal employment.

In this connection there is a very interesting situation down there that those of you who know the South very well are aware of. We have, in the main, three types of those little communities. We have a lot of eroded land and land that has lost its fertility in many of our areas, and there is a residue population in those areas of those who have plenty of land but the land is so poor they can't make an adequate living on it. They do some farming, but they have to depend on farm labor to supplement the income from the poor scratchings they can get from that soil. One I think of is named Seven Paths, and seven roads go through it. It is on the way down, and what you have left in there is a residue population.

Now, we have also the other type of little settlement on the other end of that scale. We have some rich black swamplands that are

just being cleared up and brought into cultivation. Clearing that land is an arduous undertaking and the people who undertake it cannot get enough cleared the first 4 or 5 years to make a complete living on it, so they have to supplement their income from their land, as they clear it, by getting employment with the farmers around there.

There are two types of those little clusters of population.

Then there is the third. There is the residue population or island population which used to be around a sawmill, which was an important industry in eastern Carolina or most of that area. The industry has disappeared and it has left those people there and you will find 10, 15, or 20 dilapidated huts around where these sawmills used to be, where Negroes are yet living.

Our problem in North Carolina and most of South Carolina has been not to get the farmer to take the workers, but to find out where the workers are, and that means covering a whole area and establishing some sort of working relationship with those workers so we can shift them about from place to place where they are needed.

VERIFICATION OF WAGES AND LABOR CONDITIONS

Mr. ARNOLD. Did any of you ever refuse to make referrals to employers known to provide substandard wages and working conditions, and do you verify wages and working conditions as reported by employers?

Mr. HUNTER. We verify wages and working conditions as reported by employers. I don't think there has ever been an outright refusal to refer workers to employers who offer substandard wages or working conditions. However, there isn't a great deal of activity put forth to fill these orders. We usually have plenty of orders where the conditions are good.

Mr. ARNOLD. That answers the next question. Then, you don't refer them in the order of the application? You give precedence to the high-wage employers?

Mr. HUNTER. I think they get preference. The better job gets precedence.

Mr. GROSS. People just refuse to go to the lower standards and you have nothing else to do. It takes care of itself.

Mr. HUNTER. "John Jones offers 40 cents and here is an offer for 50 cents. Which do you want?" That practically settles it.

Mr. ARNOLD. The committee has found that improper transportation and housing facilities frequently deter workers from taking agricultural jobs. What steps are being taken to improve these facilities in your area?

HOUSING OF WORKERS

Mr. HUNTER. The Farm Security Administration camps have provided housing for a great number of agricultural workers and they have had a very marked effect upon housing throughout every area they have been in. I have had farmers come to me and say, "I have a good camp here. It is better than the Farm Security camp."

I would like to have Mr. Stoll go on with that if he will for a moment.

Mr. STOLL. There are two aspects to the question. The most important is that the growers now, without exception, are realizing they have to improve their own living quarters and they are doing it. I am speaking now for the west coast, when I say no farm program can operate without mobile camps.

Our growers were much exercised over the fact that there might be a cutting down of mobile camps and if such does occur it will bring definite trouble in the entire recruitment of labor in the West. You can't operate in certain sections, in the wide open spaces that we have where there are no facilities, without mobile camps.

Three years ago we started and we have on record now 28 requests for actual locations of camps. It isn't a case any more of going in and putting in a camp. It is where the growers are actually coming, having seen the benefits of decent conditions and housing for migratory workers, to where they are in favor of it. Where you take workers from one part of the State to the other you can't operate efficiently in handling labor in seasonal farm work without mobile camps.

The farmers are the ones that are asking for it, not the Employment Service, and not the Farm Security Administration. But it has had a tendency to bring better housing conditions on the ranches and farms in our section of the country.

Mr. GROSS. I should like to add to that, speaking personally in the matter, that I think the mobile camps make a major contribution to the longer period of employment that those who follow farm labor work as a vocation have been able to get in recent years.

Personally, I think that the care of these workers in camps is not the ultimate answer, but I think the Government camps provide a demonstrational project which challenges farmers who are interested in farm labor to provide better housing conditions of their own.

I know there has been some little effort, on the part of those who experienced difficulty with farm labor, to improve housing conditions and sometimes to offer small tracts of land for the workers to farm themselves, and often won't take such laborers unless they will keep a cow and do some things of that sort. It helps to add to their income. This problem has been with us over a long period of years and I think the program of the Farm Security Agency has been very helpful.

Mr. ARNOLD. In appearing before the Subcommittee on Appropriations considering the Farm Security bill for the next year, some member of the subcommittee raised the point that these camps were not needed as much now because there was not the migration in the land that we saw a few years ago.

Mr. STOLL. That is true when you speak of out-of-State migration but you have the migration within your State more intensified now, because you have to use your local State labor rather than bring them from out of State.

SMALL CAMPS PREFERRED

We did find one thing and I think this is important. The Farm Security Administration made mistakes on having the camps too large. We had one camp of 2,000 people. That is a small city. We now have them broken down into small camps and have them right within the actual growing section. I know of no farm organization or group of growers in our State which is not in favor of the farm camps. That is actual fact.

In the recruiting of labor you can use a man three or four times a day, in the distribution of labor, when you have a mobile camp. If he finishes a job in 2 or 3 hours, you can give him something else to do to complete a whole day's work, rather than have him go into one place and stay there and only get 1 or 2 hours a day. That has an important effect in the wage of the worker.

Mr. ARNOLD. The need is then for more of those small camps?

Mr. STOLL. We now have 28 requests from the growers with only camps enough to supply 17 of the localities.

Mr. PITTMAN. I do not believe that testimony applies to the movement on the Atlantic seaboard. That movement, according to all the evidence I have been able to gather from farmers, filling-station operators, and county agents, is increasing. It is not as old a movement as that on the Pacific coast but it is increasing.

MIGRANT FARM LABOR ON ATLANTIC SEABOARD

I have been asked the question, "How old is this movement? How long have these people been coming through your area in significant numbers?" and in general the answers I get in South Carolina are "from 8 to 10 years."

Then, in North Carolina it is 6 or 8 years and in Virginia possibly less than that. So I believe that as far as the Atlantic seaboard is concerned we are confronted with a farm labor migration in its incipient stages.

Dr. LAMB. Still increasing interstate?

Mr. PITTMAN. That is the evidence I have. There are some interesting points in connection with that.

In Bayboro, N. C., there is a big farmer who tells me rather privately that he is the man who started the movement of the potato diggers into the Bayboro area. One year he was having unusual difficulty with his labor and he went to Meggetts, S. C., where he knew these migrants had been the previous season, and he brought them to Bayboro and they have been coming to Bayboro in increasing numbers ever since. They harvest about 60 percent of the crop. And over near Elizabeth City area there is another farmer who claims he is the first man to bring them into his area.

It is interesting to show that perhaps this movement has come about through employer initiative. You can understand how they like it. It brings labor to their door.

Those potato farmers will get up just about the time the potatoes are ready to harvest and look out and see the trucks with these Negroes there.

Mr. ARNOLD. Let me ask you this question: What is the general attitude of employers in your area regarding the expansion of the F. S. A. camp program? Would the expansion of the program assist you in distributing labor forces more effectively?

Mr. HUNTER. It would. I don't believe that the Farm Security Administration camp program ever reached the magnitude it should have reached to take care of present labor. The grower attitude is that more camps are needed and our experience has been as these camps are put in you will find an increasing tendency on the part of the growers to provide better housing conditions themselves. As far as the utilization of labor in these camps, we have completed an

agreement with the Farm Security Administration where we place in each camp a Farm Service placement man who will take care of the placement of those people in agriculture.

Mr. GROSS. I don't want to go into the social aspect of the concentration of people in the camps, but I think there is a need to look at the fact that a certain number of agricultural workers who follow it as a vocation have to move and migrate or else get only a short work period during the year, and there is no housing for them.

SOCIAL PROBLEM

We have a definite problem that we encounter in the Rocky Mountain States that a vast majority of Latin-Americans or Mexicans who work in the agricultural pursuits in Colorado, don't stay in the farming communities and when the season is over they go to the cities.

There is a tremendous influx every winter of Mexican families who come in from the agricultural areas and when employment is not good—and there is plenty of discrimination against them in industrial employment—they become a common problem for relief agencies, private and public. They are out again in the spring, and I think some thought should be given in the long time program to a program that might keep them from coming into communities of that kind, where they are very definitely a social problem.

When you talk of Farm Security camps there must be an understanding that these people do not stay on the farms where they work in any appreciable numbers when the off-season to growing is on. You have to provide houses or they will live in tents.

Mr. HOWARD. May I comment on that?

New York State housing for harvest workers has been inadequate. In fact in many communities there is no suitable housing for them, not even sheds, and men live in outhouses and other farm buildings.

The most active group are the county agricultural defense committees which are composed of representatives of farmer organizations such as the dairy people and horticulturists and vegetable growers.

INCREASED INTEREST IN CAMPS

As a matter of fact I think it is very significant in that previous to December 1941, the beginning of this year, the farmers did not have enough interest in the labor-supply problem to have county meetings, but that realization is now upon them and they are very active.

The Employment Service representatives and F. S. A. and other Government agencies concerned sit in on all these meetings. At least 10 or 12 of the meetings that have been held thus far have resulted in formal requests by these committees to have Farm Security camps come into the States.

Farm Security representatives told us there will be five camps available for New York State. As to whether the five camps can cover all the counties that feel they need them is something that cannot be determined now.

One other suggestion that has been made that might be of some significance is, a number of these committees have passed resolutions suggesting abandoned C. C. C. camps be used in housing those farm workers.

Mr. ARNOLD. No doubt the personnel assigned to farm placement work in the past has been inadequate. What measures are being taken at present to increase the staff in your region?

Mr. HUNTER. I think I had better answer that. I told you briefly how we had requested that farm placement personnel be assigned to each local office, and we are getting in reports from each State as to the number of farm placement personnel that are operating in each local office, and also as to the need for an extension of employment officers to serve agricultural areas in which no employment service facilities have heretofore been provided.

Steps are definitely being taken to increase the personnel and also to increase offices to meet greater agricultural needs.

Mr. ARNOLD. Now, what measures are being taken in your region to insure an adequate supply of farm labor?

Mr. HUNTER. I think Mr. Stoll has probably the outstanding example of that in the United States.

Mr. STOLL. We have our regular supply which we always have, and which is broken down into crews of local people in the local community. We realize there is going to be very little migration into the State; in fact our records show there is a migration out at the present time.

RESERVOIRS OF LABOR

We felt that there were only two organizations we could use efficiently. First, the school students from seventh grade up to college. We are pledging every single individual from high schools, colleges, and every grammar school from the seventh grade up, on little pledge cards, with the approval of the parents signed to them, that they will be available for actual working in seasonal crops.

The second largest reservoir is the women and, starting on the 16th, after 3 months' preparation we are taking an actual census of every woman in the State or Oregon. Probably 300,000 women will be interviewed by about 7,000 volunteer women. Those 7,000 have been trained for 2 months as to how to conduct an interview. They are going into each home, and out of that will come an available labor supply.

In the large cities out of every block 1 person is designated to whom the employment service can phone, who will be responsible for the people in that area. In our State we have a full employment, the lumber industry going on 3 shifts and swing shifts, construction of 2 large cantonments, and so on, at peak, and our shipbuilding industry needs up to 50,000 persons in the Portland area.

So we know, to meet the problem, we will have to call on other reservoirs and I would like to repeat once again that the growers in our State were very much concerned as to whether they should or should not plant, and in order to allay their fears we have appeared before every grange in the local communities, 400 of them, and every farm bureau organization and every farmers' unit, explaining just what we were going to do, so they would plant and I think that has been taken care of.

Mr. HUNTER. I think on a national basis some of the things we are doing might be of interest.

One is, we have had a meeting with the Department of Education and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor relative to regulations in the employment of children.

We have agreements with C. C. C. and W. P. A., relative to employment of workers enrolled with them. We have worked with various youth movements on employment of youth.

We are graphing at the present time a statement on better utilization of women and how they may be utilized, and we are stressing recruitment of local workers for agricultural needs. These cover largely the things that we have done here.

URBAN YOUTH GROUPS

Mr. HOWARD. I would like to say that perhaps the greatest new source of labor supply that is anticipated in New York will result from a passage of the bill which is now before the legislature to permit urban high school children of the ages of 14 years and over, to be absent 30 days to work on harvest.

In many places the farmers believe that the proper use of a high school student will be the most valuable addition to the labor supply in the State.

The Employment Service has had experience in working with these urban school children in one city which permitted them to be absent last year, and we believe we have proper facilities for placement of those children on farms and we are working with the State department of education and State department of labor with respect to the standards under which children will be released.

Mr. PITTMAN. There is a movement on foot in Maryland to use young people on farms and they are making some preparation to give that youth some little training before it goes to the farm.

It seems that there is a boys' private school that wants to do it, and I understand that plans are afoot to bring quite a number of youth in there on Saturdays and later on to bring them in 7 days a week.

Mr. ARNOLD. Is that white labor only or colored labor also?

Mr. PITTMAN. I would assume that was white only.

EMERGENCY LABOR GROUPS

Mr. STOLL. I might say last year in the extreme cases in our local communities, in cooperation with business establishments and everyone in the community, we closed down businesses in a given city, completely, for 2 days at a time, and everybody went out and helped with the harvesting. We hope we don't have to resort to that again.

We had complete cooperation, including the State officers and the Governor. We don't consider that good practice but it may happen again.

Mr. GROSS. Didn't you also use many industrial workers who were not employed on Saturday and Sunday?

Mr. STOLL. Members of unions went before the other members and said that they wouldn't get a job unless they went out in agriculture.

Mr. GROSS. I can only add one or two observations beyond what has been said. These programs that have been described here are being utilized in the region I serve and, as these needs become known from the various sources that we are now trying to tap, to learn the

needs of agriculture labor for the coming seasons ahead, there is provision in the United States Employment Service that they can make registrations very quickly either in local areas or State-wide. I think the local area inventories are much better than the State-wide ones and I think by and large the Employment Service is keenly alive to its responsibility and has the tools with which to meet the responsibility.

If we can get the fullest possible cooperation from the growers and other organizations or committees that have been set up, in not disrupting the labor market by getting panicky and giving out information and figures and advertising, I think the problem could be met chiefly by depending on local sources rather than depending on mass movement.

Mr. ARNOLD. Dr. Lamb, did you have any questions that you want to ask?

Dr. LAMB. I want to say to Mr. Stoll that we have his letter of January 27 and a reply has been sent to his Oregon office, but the letter with respect to the mobile camps is appreciated, and I believe that Mr. Tolan will put it into the Congressional Record.

Mr. STOLL. Thank you.

FARM LABOR STATISTICS

Dr. LAMB. I would like to ask one question which goes back to the question asked some time ago. I am not sure that I was completely clear on the answer to this although the record may show that it was answered previously, and that is this: Whether the operation of the Agricultural Marketing Service in its present reports seems to you to have been improved over this time say a year ago, and whether there remain improvements, and what methods of arriving at those improvements you would suggest.

Mr. HUNTER. Mr. Gray of my staff has been working on that, and I would like to ask him to answer that.

Mr. JAMES G. GRAY. Mr. Collender, Chief of the Crop Reporting Board, told us that they were putting on about 50 people so we could get information on a smaller local basis.

At the present time their figures have been largely published on a State basis or in respect to rather large areas. That is of academic interest, but it is not of sufficient interest to the man operating the local office. The local office needs were the main reason we wanted the information broken down into a smaller basis. We have also been told the reports can be secured on a county basis more frequently than previously was the case.

Dr. LAMB. Are they still on the same subjective basis to which this committee objected in the first interim report? What percentage of the labor available last year seems to you to be available now, and how much more demand do you have now than you had last year?

Mr. GRAY. I know a series of meetings have been held in various parts of the United States and out of those meetings came a schedule which is a little different from the usual enumerative schedule, which might supply some information they can go on.

I suggest Mr. Neegard, of the Statistical Board, may be able to give you some information on that.

Mr. OLE NEEGARD. Agriculture was given a quarter of a million dollars for this fiscal year to improve their data on farm labor statistics, and I think they have very good assurance that they will be provided with a half million dollars for the next fiscal year.

The Division of Statistical Standards of the Bureau of the Budget has held many conferences with representatives from the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Labor, the Bureau of the Census, the Bureau of Employment Security, and the Work Projects Administration to discuss the type of information needed on farm labor. Conferences will continue from time to time. The first schedule for this enlarged program went out in January—about 325,000 schedules. For March and April the number will be about 200,000 schedules.

The two questions you referred to, on supply and on demand, are on the schedules that go to the regular crop reporters as formerly, but are not included among the questions on the schedules that are used for the new program. The United States Department of Agriculture has had difficulty in getting information from the areas of heavy labor requirements as the Department has had to resort to sample enumeration in these areas.

I think the Department plans on using enumerators in heavy labor requirement areas in six States this summer. It has begun in Florida and is now setting up plans in New Jersey and in Texas. Shortly it will go into California and I think also into Oregon and North Carolina.

We shall be glad to supply you with all the information that we have if you wish it. I think, however, that the expanded program on farm labor statistics will be discussed in detail tomorrow.

Dr. LAMB. I will ask a member of the staff to get in touch with you if that doesn't come out in detail in tomorrow's hearing when we hear the Department of Agriculture representatives.

Mr. GROSS. I think there was a series of meetings held throughout the country in which they came together with the State reporting people and regional reporting people and I think there was an evaluation of the material that was being utilized and some constructive suggestions were made and I think some suggestions that they cease and desist in certain fields in attempting to get information that is confusing.

DUTIES OF LOCAL OFFICES

We found in discussing with Mr. Hunter, yesterday, we did not have a single area in the six States of region 11, where another employment office was needed on the basis of the population and crop value data he and the Department of Agriculture had worked out.

We recognize since the decentralization of the Farm Placement Bureau out in the States, our picture of the thing has been that a local employment service office ought to be a service unit that serves the entire labor market and knows its resources and knows its needs and no matter whether you have a specialist in farm placement in the office, it is the responsibility of the office to discharge its obligations to the entire labor market problem.

Dr. LAMB. I can see how a weekly basis would be imperative in those areas where there is a traditional circuit movement. The outstanding example of that has been in Texas, intrastate, and on the

west coast interstate, but the intrastate movement in the State of Texas requires, and they have developed, a reporting system for week by week intervals or less.

It is hard to say where the movement of people is necessary for the harvesting of crops, both in order to get the crops harvested and in order to give them full employment.

Mr. GRAY. We consider it as an implement to doing the job.

Dr. LAMB. And that leads to objective information with respect to local shortages which we would consider far more useful than the once a year or quarterly or periodic reporting of objective information of the kind the agricultural marketing reports give you.

Mr. HUNTER. And it also goes to labor supply as well as shortage.

Mr. GRAY. And changed conditions.

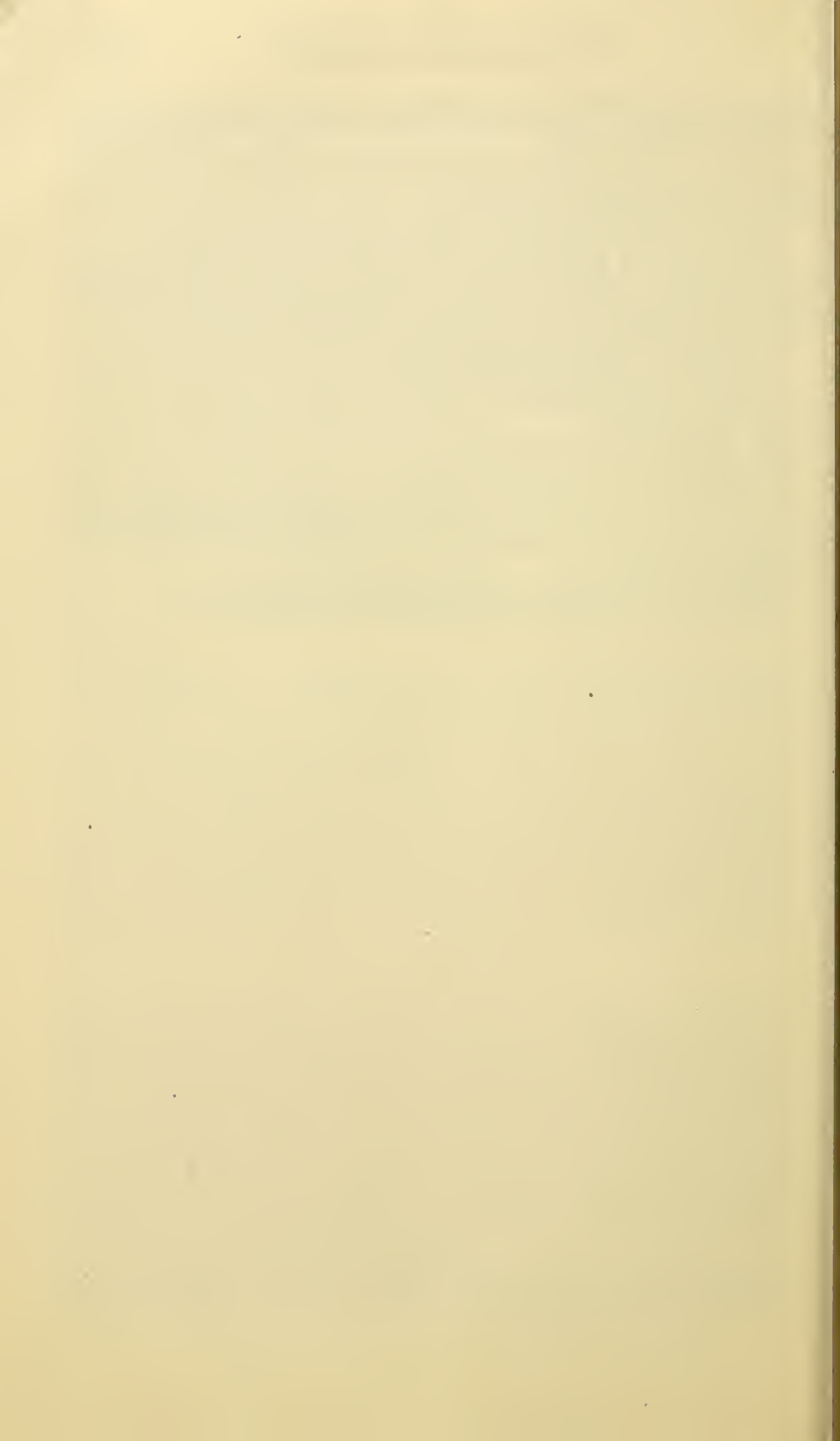
Dr. LAMB. Which change, of course, by reason of weather and such things vary rapidly.

Mr. ARNOLD. We appreciate very much your coming here before the committee.

Dr. LAMB. We would like very much to have any material you brought in from the regions and that will be used by the staff for the preparation of the report and all of it perhaps incorporated in the published record.

Mr. ARNOLD. The committee now stands adjourned.

(Whereupon at 12:30 p. m., an adjournment was taken.)



NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION

FRIDAY, FEBRUARY 13, 1942

MORNING SESSION

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
SELECT COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING
NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION,
Washington, D. C.

The committee met, pursuant to adjournment, at 9:30 a. m., in room 1536, New House Office Building, Washington, D. C., Hon. John H. Tolan (chairman), presiding.

Present: Representatives John H. Tolan, of California, chairman; Laurence F. Arnold, of Illinois; John J. Sparkman, of Alabama.

Also present: Dr. Robert K. Lamb, staff director of the committee.

TESTIMONY OF PANEL FROM UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The CHAIRMAN. The committee will please come to order. Gentlemen, we appreciate your coming here this morning.

The committee recognizes the vital role of agricultural production in the war. We have called upon you gentlemen from the Department of Agriculture to tell us about the problems of farm labor and population. May I suggest that the hearing be conducted as an informal panel? We will direct the questions at particular individuals, but everyone should feel free to interrupt or comment upon the statement of the speaker.

Mr. Raymond Smith will act as moderator of the panel.

The members of the panel are Raymond C. Smith, Chief Program Analyst, Bureau of Agricultural Economics; William J. Rogers, Chief, Division of Labor and Rural Industries, Office of Agricultural Defense Relations; Conrad Taeuber, Senior Social Scientist, Bureau of Agricultural Economics; Sherman Johnson, Head, Division of Farm Management and Costs, Bureau of Agricultural Economics; James G. Maddox, Director, Rural Rehabilitation Division of Farm Security Administration, all of Washington, D. C.

We also have with us today Prof. John Black of Harvard, who, I am sure, needs no further introduction. We will ask Dr. Black to listen closely and comment at the end of the discussion. He shares with you, of course, the privilege of breaking into the discussion at any point.

The prepared statements submitted here will be made a part of the committee record.

(The statements mentioned are as follows:)

SUMMARY OF REPORTS ON RURAL EDUCATION BY STATE AGRICULTURAL PLANNING COMMITTEES, JUNE 1, 1941, WASHINGTON, D. C.

PREPARED BY STATE AND LOCAL PLANNING DIVISION, BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND GUIDANCE

The following recommendations pertaining to vocational training and guidance were excerpted from the State Unified Agricultural Program Reports which the State Agricultural Planning Committees submitted to the Secretary of Agriculture a few months ago. Outlined as an initial step in the development of a general program to contribute to national defense and to meet the impacts of war, the State reports reviewed the problems confronting American agriculture and suggested ways and means of effecting improvements. Under these circumstances, it is significant that vocational training and guidance received more frequent mention than practically any other group of problems.

Many of the recommended activities are already being carried on by the public schools and other educational agencies, and need only to be expanded. Others may be relatively new and unknown in some areas. All deserve the thoughtful consideration of public agencies working in this field. The recommendations have been grouped under six headings as follows: Vocational Guidance, Agricultural Education, Home Economics Education, Non-agricultural Training, General Vocational Training, and General Education.

A. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The need for an expanded program of vocational guidance in rural areas is reflected by the following recommendations:

1. That a vocational guidance service be made available to all rural areas as a means of aiding rural youth to find out (a) the kind of work they are best fitted to do; (b) the kinds of employment likely to be available, and (c) where they can get the training best suited to their individual interests, aptitudes, and opportunities; and that itinerant counselors be provided for the smaller schools which cannot afford full-time counselors (Maryland).

2. That the schools have a primary responsibility in developing programs of guidance for rural youth; that such programs be worked out in close collaboration with other public agencies; and that all community leaders assist in disseminating occupational information (Kentucky).

3. That there be occasional interchange of classes among industrial arts, agriculture, business education, and home economics instructors in order to develop increasing understanding, abilities, and technical knowledge in consumer education, home financing, and the like, for boys, and in gardening, poultry raising, business education, homemaking, and the like, for girls (Maryland).

4. That the State departments of education continue and increase their vocational guidance and counselling services in all rural high schools and that these services be extended through part-time and evening classes to out-of-school rural youth. (Delaware, Massachusetts, New York, North Carolina, Vermont, West Virginia).

B. AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

Typical of the recommendations of interest to the Agricultural Education Service, to State supervisors of agricultural education and to agricultural teacher trainers, are the following:

1. That the present system of vocational agricultural training be continued and extended to all communities in which agriculture is an important industry, so that agricultural training will be provided for all high-school students, older youth, or adults who desire such training (Idaho, Kentucky, Oregon, Washington).

2. That public schools cooperate in the development and training of leaders in an extensive educational program regarding (a) the conservation of natural and human resources; (b) more efficient production of agricultural products through crop rotation, improved cultural methods, improved irrigation methods, insect control, etc.; (c) cooperative buying and selling; (d) labor supply and job opportunities (Southwestern States).

3. That farm boys be encouraged to remain on their own home farms by providing protection for their interests through expressed relationships and wills (Massachusetts).

4. That more opportunity be provided for rural youth who desire to become established in farming (Idaho).

5. That State departments of education cooperate with the public employment service in establishing a registry of high-school students desiring farm employment (Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York).

6. That since one of the more serious obstacles to the improvement of rural housing is the residents' lack of skill, emphasis should be given to the vocational training opportunities now being developed as a part of the national defense program (South Central States).

7. That the State College of Agriculture and the State Department of Education name a special committee to prepare a small publication to be used in teaching agriculture in the seventh and eighth grades (West Virginia).

8. That full advantage be taken of the increased shop training facilities available in rural high schools as a result of the special training program for defense workers (Kansas).

9. That the Federal Government appropriate funds to be allotted to the States, for the establishment, development and maintenance of area vocational schools, including transportation of or maintenance for students (Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina).

10. That an additional year of high-school work be provided to permit sufficient time for both general education and vocational education.

11. That in States where forestry is an important industry, all students in the college of agriculture who are preparing for educational work among farm people should be given at least a minimum amount (6 semester hours) of basic training in forestry; and that farm forestry and forest demonstration projects be started wherever feasible and a unified forest education program inaugurated (Oklahoma).

12. That the forestry division of the State Agricultural College cooperate with the State department of education in the preparation of a farm forestry course for inclusion in the vocational agricultural offering of the public high schools of the State (Missouri).

13. That the public schools and colleges provide an adequate educational program in the field of conservation with the aim of developing a more conservation-minded generation which will insist on the efficient use of minerals, soils, water, forage, forests, and wildlife (Texas).

14. That research programs be orientated to provide information concerning vocational-training problems of immediate concern, such as those arising from defense activities, or those likely to occur as the result of post-war conditions (North Carolina).

15. That the State agricultural planning committees in cooperation with appropriate State officials sponsor State and district meetings of agricultural teachers, extension workers and other professional agricultural personnel with the aim of studying and discussing agricultural problems and planning proposals (Idaho).

16. That the county agricultural planning committees help to sponsor local meetings of agricultural teachers, agricultural agency representatives, farm organization leaders and others, with the view of discussing agricultural problems and planning proposals, so that every person will be in position to impart pertinent information to his respective agency or community (Idaho).

17. That the State superintendent of public instruction and the State supervisor of agricultural education give additional consideration to the objectives and literature of the national farm programs in planning the public educational programs for their respective States.

18. That a State committee be set up to recommend college curricula changes so as better to equip potential agricultural workers, and that this committee be composed of representatives from the State agricultural college and the agricultural agencies operating in each State (North Carolina).

19. That colleges of agriculture place greater emphasis on education designed to present to outstanding students the challenge and opportunities of rural life (Virginia).

20. That the State department of education in conducting State and district conferences of agricultural teachers give special attention to training vocational teachers regarding the respective programs and services available from the several agricultural agencies (Idaho).

21. That agricultural teachers and county agricultural agents conduct a soil-conservation educational program, utilizing such devices as local demonstration plots, pictures of progress, and essay contests (Indiana).

22. That an aggressive educational and informational program be developed by the State department of education, the State extension service and other agricultural agencies operating in the State, to inform farmers of the present agricultural situation and outlook in order that farmers may act intelligently in choosing new enterprises or expanding existing enterprises in response to the national defense lend-lease programs (Mississippi).

23. That county agricultural planning committees set up an educational subcommittee (including the county superintendent of schools, the president of the county educational association, the county agent, and others), to aid in developing a unified rural education program for the county (South Carolina, Virginia).

24. That an interdepartment committee be set up, consisting of representatives of the United States Office of Education, the Federal Extension Service, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and other Federal agencies engaged in educational and planning work with farm men and women, to act in an advisory capacity in planning and guiding educational work affecting rural people (Idaho).

25. That a systematic method be developed to assist farm people with information for their study, discussion and understanding of the national defense program and the cooperative planning program (Missouri, South Dakota, Vermont).

26. That local discussion groups be organized for adults and young people as a means of (a) dispensing current information applicable to local conditions; (b) acquainting farmers with the relationship of present agency activities to their purposes; and (c) developing rural leaders (Colorado and North Carolina).

C. HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION

Many of the aforesaid recommendations regarding vocational guidance and agricultural education are applicable also to home economics education. In addition, the following suggestions pertaining to homemaking were included in the State reports.

1. That instruction in personal hygiene and nutrition be given in every school grade and dramatized through the use of county campaigns, demonstrations, panel discussions and neighborhood programs (New Hampshire, New York, and West Virginia).

2. That the secondary public school programs be expanded to provide basic training in home economics in all rural schools (Kentucky, Mississippi, and the Southwestern States).

3. That the present system of part-time and evening classes in home economics be continued and expanded to meet the needs of all out-of-school girls and homemakers who desire such training.

4. That the colleges and public-schools cooperate in the development and training of leaders in an extensive educational program regarding (a) health and nutrition; (b) production, preservation, and preparation of home-grown food; (c) consumer education regarding food, clothing, housing, etc.; (d) labor supply and job opportunities (Massachusetts and the Western States).

5. That an investigation be made of the possibilities of establishing training schools in low-income areas to teach household skills and handicrafts to young people so that they may more readily find employment (West Virginia).

D. NONAGRICULTURAL TRAINING

The State committee reports alluded repeatedly to the desirability of providing nonagricultural training for the increasing proportion of rural youth who, because of population pressure, increased mechanization of farms, etc., must find their vocational opportunities elsewhere than in agriculture. That rural leaders are recognizing this situation is reflected by the following recommendations:

1. That the Federal Government appropriate funds to be allotted to the States for the establishment and maintenance of area vocational schools, including transportation of or maintenance for students in areas where rural youth do not have access to the larger high schools with good vocational courses (Alabama, Florida, Iowa, Kentucky, North Carolina, and South Carolina).

2. That at least one specialized school for vocational training be established in each county with graduation from high school as a possible requirement for admission (Missouri, North Dakota, and Ohio).

3. That public schools provide evening vocational classes for men and women now living on farms but interested in occupations other than farming (Kentucky and North Carolina).

4. That special training courses for occupations essential to national defense be conducted and expanded for rural youth in school and out (Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia).

E. GENERAL VOCATIONAL TRAINING

In addition to the above mentioned recommendations pertaining to vocational guidance and to specific types of vocational education, the State reports included a considerable number of recommendations regarding vocational education in general, as follows:

1. That increased Federal and State grants-in-aid be provided for the expansion of vocational education as a part of public school system (Alabama, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Missouri, Ohio, Oklahoma, New Mexico, North Carolina, Virginia).

2. That courses in practical arts (general agriculture, home economics, business education and industrial arts), constitute a part of the core curriculum for all high-school pupils (Maryland).

3. That an additional year or more of post-graduate work be provided by the public schools to provide more time for both general education and vocational training (Missouri and Ohio).

4. That high-schools provide part-time vocational courses for the further training of boys and girls who have received employment or who lack work experience (Kentucky and Virginia).

5. That increased provision be made for the training of youth belonging to under-privileged farm families, and for the men enrolled in Civilian Conservation Corps camps (Virginia and Northwestern States).

6. That in the present emergency existing school facilities be made available for the vocational training of unemployed persons in rural communities (Illinois).

7. That the equipment now in use in special vocational defense schools be assigned to high schools after the present emergency is over and used in providing further vocational education for young and old (Maryland and Northwestern States).

8. That if and when a rural public works program is initiated, it be combined with youth training and be characterized by a constructive educational program correlated with work experience (New York).

9. That public schools cooperate in the development and training of leaders in an extensive educational program regarding labor supply and job opportunities; that county and community agricultural planning committees study youth needs and the facilities available for meeting these needs; and that these studies be conducted with the cooperation of representatives of the existing agencies working with rural youth (Idaho).

10. That research programs be orientated to provide information concerning vocational training programs of immediate concern, such as those arising from defense activities or those likely to appear as a result of post-war conditions (North Carolina).

11. That present and prospective rural school teachers have an opportunity to pursue some general courses in agricultural homemaking and manual arts to better prepare themselves for rural leadership (Southwestern States).

12. That summer courses, district conferences of agency representatives and other types of training schools be provided so that vocational teachers, extension workers and other agency leaders may have an opportunity to become informed concerning the several agricultural programs of the respective agencies.

F. GENERAL EDUCATION

The State reports also include a considerable number of recommendations of general interest to public schools. Typical of these are the following:

1. That increased Federal and State funds be made available for additional school buildings and teachers in areas where defense activities are resulting in large population increases; and that State and local school officials be urged to keep in intimate touch with the school situation in their areas so that the respective communities can be given proper priority for assistance (California and Michigan).

2. That existing educational and youth-serving agencies develop closer coordination to prevent needless duplication (Northwestern States).

3. That a committee be set up in Washington consisting of representatives of the Office of Education, the Extension Service, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and other agencies carrying on educational work, to act in an advisory capacity in planning and guiding educational work in connection with national defense programs (Northwestern States).

4. That Federal funds for public education be allocated to the States in a manner that would more nearly equalize the educational opportunities available in all communities; that the State superintendent of public instruction take the initiative in developing a program of State aid for schools and public health (Iowa, Kentucky, and Mississippi).

5. That financial support, personnel and facilities of rural schools be made comparable to those of urban schools (Alabama, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia).

6. That in areas of inadequate school facilities, a study be made of practical measures for school reorganization and that when feasible smaller schools be consolidated to effect greater economy and efficiency of operation and to provide a wider variety of curriculum opportunities and better qualified teachers (Maryland, Nebraska, and Virginia).

7. That the curriculum of public schools be expanded to provide for training: (a) In the conservation of natural and human resources, (b) in the science of democratic government. (Texas and the Western States.)

8. That schools and other educational agencies make further necessary adjustments in their programs to develop leadership, prepare for social participation, teach patriotism, develop the morale of the people, and place increased emphasis upon health, nutrition and recreation (Kentucky, South Carolina, and Virginia).

9. That schools and colleges give more emphasis to subjects relating to Pan-American countries as a step toward more sympathetic understanding.

10. That all rural youth have access to high-school training as a minimum of formal education (Northwest Region); and that compulsory school attendance requirements be raised from 16 to 17 years of age and from the eighth to the tenth grade (Iowa).

11. That public agencies operating in rural areas undertake additional adult education through meetings, discussion groups and forums (Delaware, Florida, New York, North Carolina, and Vermont).

12. That a community service bureau be established in every county to supply volunteer talent for communities and to maintain a list of available services such as speakers, song leaders, recreation leaders and projection equipment (Kentucky).

13. That increased State assistance be given to improving rural library facilities, that provision be made for libraries in connection with the rural schools; that establishment of district and county libraries be encouraged; and that traveling libraries or library stations be utilized wherever feasible.

STATEMENT BY BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

ESTIMATES OF QUANTITIES OF FOOD NECESSARY TO PROVIDE CERTAIN SPECIFIED DIETS AND CROP ACREAGES AND NUMBERS OF LIVESTOCK REQUIRED FOR INDICATED PRODUCTION, PREPARED BY O. V. WELLS

An endeavor is made in the accompanying notes and tables to work out estimates of actual per capita consumption, of the per capita quantities of food necessary to provide certain specified diets, and of the acreage of crops and numbers or slaughter of the several classes of livestock which would be required at average yields to supply the specified diets for 133,900,000 people, our estimated population for 1942.

The extent to which these estimates are accurate or significant is of course limited by the accuracy and significance of the data and assumptions upon which they are based. As a result, all estimates and calculations in the accompanying tables are preliminary, and are necessarily subject to revision as additional data become available or as changes in underlying assumptions seem warranted.

Attention is called to the fact that these estimates are based upon the recent dietary recommendations of the National Research Council and the current structure of food consumption and agricultural production in the United States. That is, the specified diets or dietary combinations are designed to meet the nutritional standards recommended by the council within the general framework

of our current consumption pattern and the acreage and livestock estimates assume current yields and methods of production. Actually, of course, there are any number of dietary combinations which would satisfy the nutritional standards and changes in yields and methods of production may well occur in the years ahead.

Table 1 shows the recommended dietary allowances compared with the nutritive value of food consumed during the 5 years 1936-40, with a suggested moderate-cost diet, and with a diet best adapted to current economic resources, or what would appear to be a reasonable combination of a low-cost, a moderate, and a liberal diet. The dietary standards are in terms of daily per capita allowances for food eaten, while the data relating to consumption and the specified diets are in terms of daily per capita supplies of food delivered to the kitchen or sold in the retail market.

Table 2 shows the per capita consumption of specified groups of foods estimated from production, foreign trade, and changes in stocks of agricultural commodities for 1936 and 1936-40; per capita consumption estimated on the basis of data obtained from housewives in survey schedule and food record studies for 1936; and per capita quantities required to supply a moderate-cost diet, a diet best adapted to current economic resources, and a best adapted diet with an additional allowance of 10 percent.

The moderate-cost diet plan would give consumers an adequate diet in terms of nutritional standards at a moderate cost, while the best adapted plan is based upon the assumption that all low-income families would follow a low-cost diet plan meeting certain minimum requirements, that all families with average or moderate incomes would follow the moderate-cost diet plan, and that all high-income families would follow a liberal diet plan or maintain food consumption at a relatively high level.

All of the per capita consumption estimates in table 2 are in terms of averages—that is, many persons or families consumed more and many consumed less than the average for the entire population. The estimated quantities shown for the first two diet plans are based upon the assumption that per capita and per family consumption would be evenly distributed among the entire population or among the broad income groups for which different diet plans are assumed. But such an even distribution is not likely to be obtained, and as a result the third diet plan has been added. This third plan assumes that families in each different income group will use the diet best adapted to their economic resources, together with an extra allowance of 10 percent in order that families who are consuming in excess of the assumed diets may continue at the higher level.

Table 3 shows the acreages and livestock production required to supply 133,900,000 people with the specified diets described in tables 1 and 2, and compares these with actual acreages and numbers for 1936-40 and 1941. These actual acreages and numbers supplied domestic consumption, and also allowed stocks of corn and wheat to be increased and considerable quantities of food to be exported during 1936-40 and 1941. The data and estimates in table 3 include no allowances for non-food and feed crops such as cotton, tobacco, and flaxseed, and assume that we will continue to import about the same quantities of such commodities as sugar and bananas as in the recent past.

In considering table 3, as well as the data and estimates in tables 1 and 2, it should be remembered that the problem involved is not simply one of increasing agricultural production. In any effort to move toward a more adequate and better balanced national diet, it is of course necessary that people generally should realize the need for and want a better-balanced diet, and it is equally necessary that per capita and per family incomes should be sufficient to support the more adequate and better-balanced diet. And even though the data and estimates in this statement indicate the need for a more adequate national diet, it should be remembered that the United States is today the best-fed nation in the world.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the Bureau of Home Economics, and especially Dr. Hazel K. Stiebeling of the Division of Family Economics, supplied all of the estimates or calculations shown in table 1 for actual consumption and the specified diets, as well as the survey schedule and food record estimates of per capita consumption and the estimates of the quantities of food needed for the specified diets shown in table 2. These data are basic to all of the estimates shown in table 3, and their use is gratefully acknowledged.

TABLE 1.—*Recommended dietary allowances compared with nutritive value of food consumed in 1936 and of foods specified in diet plans at 3 cost levels*

(Preliminary, subject to revision)

[Daily per capita allowances based on National Research Council's recommendations, compared with daily per capita nutritive value of food supplies delivered to the Nation's kitchens or sold at retail ¹]

Nutrient	National Research Council's dietary standards ²	Estimated per capita consumption, 1936-40 ³	Per capita requirements for—	
			Moderate-cost diet plan ³	Diet plan best adapted to resources ⁴
Food-energy.....calories.....	2,800	3,020	3,050	3,040
Protein.....grams.....	66	86	99	98
Calcium.....do.....	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.3
Iron.....milligrams.....	12	15	16	16
Vitamin A value.....international units.....	4,700	7,800	9,700	9,800
Riboflavin.....milligrams.....	2.3	2.1	⁴ 2.8-3.2	⁴ 2.8-3.2
Thiamin.....do.....	1.6	1.7	⁴ 1.9-2.3	⁴ 1.9-2.3
Ascorbic acid.....do.....	70	100	115	125

¹ Averages for dietary standards and specified diets calculated by combining data for 17 age-sex-activity groups, basis 1940 census of population. Specified diets as suggested by Bureau of Home Economics, and per capita consumption as estimated by O. V. Wells from statistics of production, stocks, foreign trade, and waste in marketing, average 1936-40.

² These figures represent food to be eaten and do not make allowances for extensive losses in cooking.

³ These figures represent food delivered to the kitchens. No deductions have been made for losses during cooking and service, which may be appreciable for thiamin and ascorbic acid; no deductions are made for table waste.

⁴ The lower figure given is based on the assumption that none of the white flour or bread consumed has been "enriched" in thiamin and riboflavin; the higher figure on the assumption that all has been enriched.

TABLE 2.—*Estimated per capita consumption and estimated per capita and aggregate quantities of specified groups of food (retail and kitchen weight) needed to supply American people with low-cost, moderate-cost, and liberal diets which meet the nutritional levels recommended by the National Research Council*¹

(Preliminary, subject to revision)

Diet plan	Milk ²	Potatoes, sweet-potatoes	Beans, peas, and nuts	Tomatoes and citrus fruits	Leafy, green, yellow vegetables	Other vegetables and fruits	Eggs	Meat, poultry, and fish	Flour, cereals	Butter and other fats ³	Sugars ⁴
	Quart	Pound	Pound	Pound	Pound	Pound	Dozen	Pound	Pound	Pound	Pound
Estimated from production, stocks, etc.:	173	136	11	\$ 86	\$ 65	\$ 197	22	134	197	66	74
	179	149	12	\$ 97	\$ 73	\$ 221	24	134	196	67	75
	177	127	11	\$ 101	\$ 73	\$ 220	23	123	196	62	71
	175	148	13	\$ 81	\$ 84	\$ 193	22	119	208	58	76
Per capita quantities consumed											
Per capita quantities required											
If all families followed:	300	155	12	100	166	195	25	131	186	57	57
	285	157	15	122	160	202	26	127	182	56	59
	324	173	16	134	176	222	29	140	200	62	65
If all deficit diets were raised to best adapted level ⁵											

¹ Estimates of consumption from consumer studies and requirements for specified diets supplied by Division of Family Economics, Bureau of Home Economics. Estimates of consumption from production, foreign trade, changes in stocks, and waste in marketing supplied by O. V. Wells, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. All estimates exclude peanuts used for confectionery, eggs used by commercial bakeries, and sugar used by canners, bakers, etc. Preliminary, all estimates subject to revision or correction.

² Fluid whole milk and equivalent quantities of evaporated or dried milk or cheese.

³ Includes bacon and salt side as well as butter, margarine, oils, lard, and other table or cooking fats and oils.

⁴ Sugar and sirups, excluding sugar used by canners, bakers, confectioners, etc., which usually account for about ⅓ of total.

⁵ These quantities are based on urban consumption—all others national.

⁶ Average diet best adapted to economic resources, assuming all low-income families follow a low-cost diet plan, all average or moderate-income families a moderate-cost plan, and all high-income families a liberal diet plan. If diets of all families were raised to best-adapted level, without reducing those above such level, an additional allowance of about 10 percent would be required.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of actual acreages and livestock production with acreages, production, or numbers required to supply 133,900,000 people with 3 diets which meet the nutritional standards established by the National Research Council

(Preliminary, subject to revision)

Item	Actual acreages or numbers		Acreages or numbers for specified diets		
	1936-40	Estimate, 1941	Moderate cost	Best adapted	
				Straight	Adjusted
			(1)	(2)	(3)
Food and feed crops					
Total.....	Thousand acres		Thousand acres at average yields		
	327, 180	323, 996	321, 102	319, 238	351, 162
Truck crops ¹	3, 399	3, 350	5, 910	5, 787	6, 366
Fruits.....	5, 420	5, 370	4, 998	5, 431	5, 974
Potatoes.....	3, 968	3, 831	4, 013	4, 070	4, 477
Beans, peas, nuts.....	4, 524	4, 803	3, 979	4, 730	5, 203
Sugar and sirup ²	1, 510	1, 363	1, 494	1, 508	1, 659
Grains for food.....	73, 107	64, 562	57, 310	57, 599	63, 359
Feed grains ³	153, 157	148, 785	149, 174	147, 074	161, 781
All hay.....	69, 025	73, 933	83, 104	82, 053	90, 258
Miscellaneous crops ⁴	13, 070	17, 999	11, 120	10, 986	12, 085
Meat animals (millions of head slaughtered)					
Beef cattle.....	15. 2	16. 6	15. 2	14. 7	16. 2
Veal calves.....	9. 6	9. 3	9. 5	9. 2	10. 1
Hogs.....	63. 2	72. 5	65. 2	63. 0	69. 3
Sheep and lambs.....	21. 9	22. 6	24. 0	23. 2	25. 5
Chickens ⁵	644. 0	(⁶)	659. 0	635. 9	699. 5
Other animal products (millions of laying hens and milk cows)					
Hens ⁶	369. 0	373. 0	371. 2	411. 7	452. 9
Milk cows ⁶	23. 9	24. 4	30. 7	30. 3	33. 3

Column 1: Actual acreages and numbers available for food and feed purposes, including increases in stocks and exports, average 1936-40.

Column 2: Same as column 1, except estimates for 1941.

Column 3: Acres and numbers to supply 133,900,000 people with an adequate diet at moderate cost, assuming consumption evenly distributed.

Column 4: Acres and numbers to supply a low-cost diet to all low-income families, a moderate cost diet to families with moderate incomes, and a liberal diet to all high-income families, assuming consumption evenly distributed among families within each group.

Column 5: Same as column 4, except over-all increase of 10 percent to allow for excess or above average consumption within each group.

NOTES—ACREAGES AND LIVESTOCK PRODUCTION COMPARED WITH ACREAGES AND PRODUCTION REQUIRED TO SUPPLY 133,900,000 PEOPLE WITH 3 SPECIFIED DIETS

Acreage and number estimates are based upon per capita quantities of the several groups of foods required to meet the nutritional standards of the National Research Council as worked out by Dr. Stiebeling and associates in the Bureau of Home Economics. The best adapted diet is the diet that would result if all low-income families used the low-cost diet, all moderate-income families the moderate diet, and all high-income families the liberal diet.

Average yields for 1936-40, except yields for corn, oats, barley, and grain sorghums, are averages for 193. and 1937-40. Animal yields are also for 1936-40 with average rations for livestock, adjusted to 1938-405 Acreages for corn, oats, barley, wheat, rice, grain sorghums, dry beans, potatoes (Irish), and sugar beets are planted. All other crops, acreages harvested.

¹ Commercial truck crop acreage adjusted for farm and market gardens, cantaloups and watermelons included.

² Average acreage for 1936-40 carried for all diets, assuming additional requirements are imported.

³ Acreage estimates for specified diets include feed requirements for livestock, and the following: Corn required for corn meal and flour, corn sirup, sugar, and dextrin, corn cereals, starch (estimated at 25,000,000 bushels), alcohol and distilled spirits (estimated at 25,000,000 bushels). Oats required for oatmeal. Barley required for malt (estimated at 60,000,000 bushels).

⁴ Acreages are allowances for rye harvested, buckwheat, one-half of soybeans for seed, hops, popcorn, timothy seed, cowpeas harvested, velvet beans grown alone, sweet sorghums for forage, and peanuts grown alone but not picked and threshed.

⁵ Number of laying hens and chickens produced on farms, assuming nonfarm eggs and chickens equal 10 percent of farm production. Estimated not available for chickens slaughtered, 1941.

⁶ Number of milk cows on farms, using allowance for feeding calves equal to 2.75 percent of milk for consumption, and assuming nonfarm production of 2,000,000,000 pounds of fluid milk, and adding about 5 percent to the number of cows required for the several diets, to allow for ice cream, etc.

There would be 377,000,000 pounds of lard, bacon, and salt pork available for export with the best adapted diet, 531,000,000 pounds with the moderate-cost diet, and 415,000,000 pounds with the best-adapted diet adjusted. Certain imports, chiefly pineapples, bananas, olive oil, and sugar would also be required. Attention is called to the fact that all estimates and calculations are for food and feed crops, and that no estimates or allowances are included for cotton, tobacco, and oil crops which are not used directly for food.

STATEMENT BY JAMES G. MADDON, DIRECTOR, RURAL REHABILITATION DIVISION FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE ROLE OF LOW-INCOME FARM FAMILIES IN THE WAR EFFORT

Production of the vast amounts of food and fiber called for by the present war emergency can be achieved only with the persistent cooperation of the low-income farmers of this Nation.

Two out of every five potential food for freedom producers are low-income farmers. These low-income farmers represent a huge reservoir of unused, untapped power: manpower, land power, productive power. Only if this power is harnessed can the full productive capacity of the Nation's farm plant be utilized for the food production job ahead. If it is not harnessed, supplies of vital farm products may not expand rapidly enough to meet the demands for food of this country and other democracies throughout the world.

It is the purpose of this statement to point out that war food production by these low-income, underemployed farm families is vital to the nation's war effort and that such production is possible on a large scale with simple aid from the Federal Government. The statement will follow this outline:

First, a description of the low-income and underemployed farm population.

Second, an analysis of the potential food production capacities of this group.

Third, a statement about the types of action that will be required to open up the capacities for such production.

Fourth, an analysis of the farm labor problem.

I. FACTS ABOUT LOW-INCOME FARM FAMILIES

Two out of every five farmers who might reasonably be expected to produce food for freedom are low-income, underemployed farmers. Following is a presentation of data from the 1940 census showing the number of low-income farmers in the Nation:

Total number of United States farmers.....	6, 096, 000
Number of farmers with gross earned farm incomes under \$800 in 1939.....	3, 460, 000
Subtract 10 percent to make allowance for improved conditions in 1942 over 1939.....	346, 000
	3, 114, 000
Subtract the "nonfarm" farmers who worked off their farms over 200 days.....	560, 000
	2, 554, 000
Subtract the "nonfarm" older operators ¹	360, 000
Total number of low-income farmers.....	2, 194, 000

¹ This group, approximately two-fifths of the farmers over 65, includes that portion of the estimated number of aged farmers with gross earned farm income below \$800, who are not regarded as bona fide farmers (includes primarily retired persons). Very few of this aged group are likely to be included in the group working off farm more than 200 days.

This low-income farm population is constituted as follows:

	Number	Percent
1. Full-time, underemployed farmers.....	986, 900	45. 0
2. Part-time farmers ¹	230, 800	10. 5
3. Sharecroppers ²	541, 300	24. 7
4. Standard Farm Security Administration rehabilitation families.....	435, 000	19. 8
Total.....	2, 194, 000	100. 0

¹ These are 60 percent of the farmers who work off their farms more than 100 days but less than 200 days per year. The other 40 percent are assumed to earn more than \$800 per year from the farm.

² It is assumed that all of the sharecroppers are low-income farmers.

Of the 6,096,000 farmers in the Nation, only about 5,000,000 might be considered as potential producers of food for freedom, as about 1,000,000 farmers over 65 or working off their farms more than 200 days each year might be eliminated. Of this 5,000,000, more than 2,000,000, or two-fifths, are low-income farmers.

About 85 percent of the vast reservoir of available productive farmers not already reached by the Farm Security Administration is in the South and Midwest. Slightly more than three-fifths of this unreached group is located in the Southern States; even when the sharecopper group is excluded, nearly half of the full-time and part-time low-income farmers in the Nation are in the South.

Distribution of the Nation's low-income farmers by regions and type of farmer¹

	Full-time farmers	Part-time farmers	Share- croppers	All low-income farmers	
				Number	Percent
West.....	57,000	25,000	-----	82,000	4.6
Midwest.....	316,500	68,500	-----	385,000	21.9
Northeast.....	134,200	36,800	-----	171,000	9.7
South.....	479,200	100,500	541,300	1,121,000	63.8
United States.....	986,900	230,800	541,300	1,759,000	100.0

¹ Does not include the 435,000 standard Farm Security Administration rehabilitation borrowers.

Underemployment

Under employment characterizes the low-income farmer in the United States.

It is probable that most of the 986,900 full-time, low-income farmers work only at half capacity. Their farms are too small, their equipment inadequate, and their skill undeveloped. The census shows that the total cash value of their present farm production averages only about \$500 a year, of which not more than \$400 worth is available for off-farm markets.

A vast proportion of the 230,800 part-time farmers have too few resources for full employment and only a limited opportunity for off-farm employment.

Most of the 541,300 sharecroppers, except in the planting and harvesting season, work at less than half capacity and are unable to do anything about it.

The 435,000 low-income farmers who have received rehabilitation loans, supervision, and other aid from the Farm Security Administration are making a more complete utilization of their labor than other low-income farmers, but there is still great need for improvement in their soil, their tenure arrangements, and their buildings, and great need for expansion and further reorganization of their inadequate resources.

Excellent evidence of underemployment in agriculture is presented by the fact that the lower-income half of the Nation's farmers produced only 12 percent of the total value of farm production in 1939. The remaining 88 percent of the production was turned out by the other 50 percent of the farmers who were better able to use their labor in production.¹

In fact, in 1939, about 47.6 percent of the Nation's farmers produced farm products sold, traded, or used at home that had values of less than \$600 each. This huge group, whose average gross farm income was about \$350, actually produced on the average less than \$250 worth of farm products for sale.

This volume of production per farm is so small that it requires the family's labor only a part of the time—a few months of the year. For instance, in the Midwest this small volume of production could be achieved from a single cow, 12 pigs, and 50 hens, as follows:

1 cow producing 170 pounds butterfat at 30 cents.....	\$51
1 calf vealed.....	15
12 pigs, averaging 200 pounds at \$9.....	216
50 hens, producing 7 dozen eggs at 25 cents.....	87
Total production.....	369

Obviously, caring for these livestock and the small acreages of crops necessary to feed them in no way approximates full employment for the typical low-income Midwest farm family.

The same story of underemployment can be told for the hundreds of thousands of farmers in the South averaging a production of \$350 total farm products sold,

¹ Estimates based directly on data from the 1940 census.

traded, or used at home. This volume of production could come from less than 6 acres of cotton.

Six acres with 370 pounds lint per acre at 15 cents per pound.....	\$330
700 pounds seed per acre at 1¼ cents per pound.....	52
Total.....	382

These estimates are borne out by actual studies. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics found that the typical two-mule Delta cotton farm producing cotton, corn, and a small amount of livestock requires a total of only about 2,300 man-hours of labor per year.² The amount of family labor actually available is 4,080 man-hours. Therefore, except during the 2 months of cotton picking, the family labor is less than half employed. A similar picture of underemployment could be given for small, low-income farmers in all areas of the Nation.

Underemployment is no new problem on American farms. Back in 1929, a year of unusually high farm prices, approximately 2,225,000 farmers produced less than \$800 gross earned income.³ In all probability much of the labor of this group of farmers was wasted then as it is now. Again in 1937 the picture was no better. An analysis of data from the Unemployment Census of 1937 revealed 3,000,000 farmers lacking full employment of their labor, 1,547,000 farmers totally or partially unemployed or as having only emergency employment, and 1,453,000 underemployed, producing gross cash incomes from their farm operations averaging less than \$200 annually.⁴

The argument advanced in this report is that the defense industries have done little to alleviate this underemployment on American farms.

Impact of war activity

Contrary to popular belief, present-day industrial and military activity is not providing economic opportunities for great masses of low-income farm families. These families simply are not leaving their farms in any significant number to move into areas of defense activity and get wartime jobs in plants and factories. According to a monthly survey of Farm Security Administration families, less than 1 family out of 25 moved to town or city during the last 6 months of 1940.⁵ During the same period in 1941, even fewer Farm Security Administration families moved to town or city. Of course, Farm Security Administration families have more stable tenure arrangements than most typical low-income farmers, but only 1 in 23 of the farmers living on farms adjoining those of Farm Security Administration families moved to town or city during the last 6 months of 1941.

Late in the fall of 1941 the Work Projects Administration conducted simple surveys on migration into 25 defense centers. The surveys were concerned with civilians who moved into the area from outside the industrial county after October 1, 1940, and who were still living in the area at the time of the survey. The findings are most significant.

Although 23 percent of the Nation's population lives on farms, the Work Projects Administration studies showed that less than 10 percent of the migrant defense workers were employed full time in agriculture before migrating to the defense centers. The people coming into defense centers and getting jobs were predominantly nonfarmers. The following table presents the picture of migrations into the Nation's defense industries.

This table indicates several important points bearing upon the nonemployment of farm people in defense industries. One is that job opportunities are opening up mostly to young people. There is little room for the older person. The age of the average defense worker reported by the Work Projects Administration surveys was less than 30 years. Fewer than 15 percent were 45 years and over. Yet the age of the typical farmer is 48 years, and the age of the average standard Farm Security Administration borrower is about 41 years—beyond the age limit in defense plants.

² An unpublished study by the Division of Farm Management and Cost, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Farm Resources and Farming Systems Needed to Meet Living Needs of Farm Families in Five Types of Farm Areas.

³ 1930 census.

⁴ Smith, R. C. A Statement of Some Suggested Solutions for the Problem of Farm Unemployment and Underemployment, presented before the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, Washington, D. C., May 24, 1940.

⁵ Monthly National Summary of Rural Rehabilitation Activities, compiled by the Statistics Section, Finance Division, Farm Security Administration.

Migration of farmers to defense centers Oct. 1, 1940, to late fall, 1941¹

Area	Number of migrant workers	Percent of workers from agriculture ²	Average distance traveled by workers	Average age of workers
	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Miles</i>	<i>Years</i>
Nashville, Tenn.....	3,000	19	85	29.6
Des Moines, Iowa.....	3,400	5	155	29.7
South Bend, Ind.....	2,700	7	110	31.7
Augusta, Ga.....	2,400	11	100	30.1
Seattle, Wash.....	23,200	7	260	27.8
Bristol, Conn.....	1,150	15	145	25.2
Saginaw, Mich.....	1,300	8	90	29.4
Terre Haute, Ind.....	1,000	5	85	32.1
Atlanta, Ga.....	4,450	14	90	28.8
Oklahoma City, Okla.....	5,000	9	120	30.5
Washington, D. C.....	36,800	3	-----	26.1
Corpus Christi, Tex.....	3,200	9	240	31.9
Indianapolis, Ind.....	5,100	14	95	29.2
Bridgeport, Conn.....	6,000	3	115	27.0
Ft. Smith, Ark.....	1,500	10	130	32.8
St. Louis, Mo.....	11,200	14	160	30.8
Houston, Tex.....	7,100	12	175	29.1
Burlington, Iowa.....	2,900	8	140	33.7
Wichita Falls, Tex.....	2,200	8	160	32.5
Kalamazoo, Mich.....	850	8	95	28.0
Warren, Ravenna, and Newton Falls, Ohio.....	2,250	7	115	32.6
Portland and South Portland, Maine.....	1,700	4	100	32.3
Pittsburgh, Pa. and 53 other cities in Allegheny County.....	8,800	5	100	28.9
San Diego, Chula Vista, Coronado, La Mesa and National City, Calif.....	29,900	12	1,100	27.2
Los Angeles County, Calif.....	73,500	10	1,227	29.1
All areas.....	240,600	8.8	683	28.6

¹ Source: Migration Studies in Defense Centers, Division of Research, Work Projects Administration, of Federal Works Agency, released as memoranda in late 1941 and January 1942.

² Workers reporting farm owner, farm tenant, or farm laborer as occupation at last residence.

Another point revealed by the table is the distance traveled by defense workers to get their jobs. Seldom did the workers travel more than 100 or 200 miles. Most significantly, they traveled least where farm underemployment is greatest—in the South, for example. Low-income farmers did not migrate long distances to the defense centers, or if they did and were above the lower age limits, they did not get the job in competition with younger applicants.

A significant comparison might be made between the areas of most intense industrial activity and the areas of most intense underemployment and lowest income. The following table makes this comparison:

Areas of industrial defense activity compared with areas of low farm income and underemployment

Area	Proportion of defense contract awards ¹	Proportion of Nation's farm un- employed in 1937 ²	Proportion of Nation's low-income farmers in 1939 ³
	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Northeast.....	37	7	7
South.....	18	62	61
West.....	16	5	5
Great Plains.....	5	7	7
Midwest.....	24	19	20
Total.....	100	100	100

¹ Distribution of major prime supply contracts and facilities projects of the War and Navy Departments, June 1940-October 1941. From Summary of Defense Contract Awards of Industrial Areas, June 1940 Through October 1941, issued by Office for Production Management, Bureau of Research and Statistics, Nov. 29, 1941.

² From R. C. Smith's study on farm unemployment based on 1937 census of unemployment, already cited.

³ From 1940 census data, number of farms with less than \$800 gross earned income.

An extremely important factor in employment of low-income farm people is training for industrial jobs. Vocational training courses for defense industries are not being made generally available to the low-income farmers. Thirty-one percent of the individuals taking such courses between January and November 1941, were located in California and New York.⁶ Yet these States in 1937 contained only 3 percent of the United States total unemployed and underemployed farmers.⁷

On the other hand, in nine Southern States (Kentucky, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Louisiana), there were 43.1 percent of the total unemployed and underemployed farmers and only 4.9 percent of the individuals taking vocational courses. Vocational training courses generally are conducted where the defense industries are located and not where the low-income farmers can take advantage of them.

One more important factor hindering low-income farmers from getting nonfarm jobs must be mentioned. That is the attitude of these farmers. The are generally socially backward, timid, conscious of their lack of skill, and fearful of moving to the city. This is as true of moving tenants as of backwoods owners.

The truth about jobs for farmers, then, is that the middle-aged and older farmers who constitute the vast proportion of the farm population, the unskilled, the socially backward, the residents of agricultural areas far from industrial areas—in short, most of the low-income and underemployed farmers in the Nation—are not in a position to get defense jobs. Farm youth does migrate to town, but the needy farmer with a family and a single vocation is left behind—his unused labor available, however, to contribute to the Nation's food supplies.

The employment opportunities of farm laborers is another problem and is outlined in a later section.

Causes of farm underemployment

There are many factors that may cause an able-bodied and willing farmer to be underemployed. It is important that the most significant of these be examined if this Nation is to marshal its manpower for the huge war effort that must be made.

1. *Lack of capital.*—The underemployed farmer lacks land, machinery, tools, equipment, livestock, fertilizer, and seed. Evidence of this lack can be seen on every hand. Without a minimum of these capital items his labor is powerless to produce abundantly. As a result, he is poor and he contributes little to the food supplies of the Nation.

Half of the Nation's farmers—the 3,000,000 who live in the South, the Ozarks, and the Appalachians—have few farm resources. The average farmer in these areas operates a farm plant whose total capital is valued at about \$2,500, including the value of all land, buildings, machinery, and equipment. It is no coincidence that these farmers are predominantly among the lower-income half of the Nation's farmers.

According to the 1940 census, 3,578,000 farms (or approximately 3 out of 5) were under 100 acres in size. Of this group, 2,287,000 contained less than 50 acres. In the South, 7 out of 10 of the farms were under 100 acres in size.

The 59 percent of the Nation's farmers with farms under 100 acres in size—the small farmers with the most unused labor—have access to only a small portion of the Nation's farm capital resources, about 13.5 percent of all the land in farms, 21 percent of the total land in crops, and 25 percent of the total value of implements and machinery. The typical farm plant among these 3,578,000 farmers is small—about 40 acres of land, 19 acres of crops, \$213 worth of implements and machinery—a total plant valued at only \$2,900 for land, buildings, implements, and machinery.

A study of Farm Security Administration rural rehabilitation borrowers by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics⁸ showed that 31.5 percent had no cows before coming on the Farm Security Administration program, 43.4 percent had no hogs, 16.0 percent had no poultry, and 38.3 percent had no garden. Most of these Farm Security Administration borrowers were farming the year before coming on the program; only 8 percent were in nonfarm activities. This lack of livestock and gardens, together with the lack of implements, machinery, and cropland, made impossible the full employment of the family labor.

⁶ Reports and Analysis Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

⁷ R. C. Smith's Analysis, already cited.

⁸ Unpublished data from a study of standard Farm Security Administration rehabilitation borrowers of Olaf Larson, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, 1940-42.

2. *Lack of credit.*—The Nation's farm credit system, the function of which is to allocate capital to farmers for production and operating purposes, has not in the past enabled the low-income farmer generally to gain access to the capital which he lacked.

Ordinary production loans are short-term and bear a high interest rate. Low-income farmers need long-term credit for building up their working assets—money for land and building improvements, cows, sows, medical and dental care for the family, and other capital items. Lacking resources that can be used as collateral for such long-term credit, low-income farmers, if they are to get such credit at all, are often driven into the hands of "furnish merchants" or "credit sharks" whose interest rates are four or five times the bank or regular commercial rates.

Low-income farmers are frequently not considered "good risks" for ordinary short-term production credit, either. Their small operations, lack of resources, and unstable tenure contribute to their being disqualified for credit from local banks.

3. *Lack of skill and knowledge.*—The low-income farmer has had little or no vocational training and little formal education.

Borrowers from the Farm Security Administration might be regarded as fairly typical of low-income farmers in general with regard to educational status. Studies show that half of them have never gone beyond the seventh grade, and average only a fourth-grade education. The average for all Farm Security Administration borrowers is only eight grades of formal education. In the South, two out of three borrowers have never completed more than the seventh grade. Even the young farmers (under 35) who have come on the Farm Security Administration program have had relatively little schooling, averaging less than nine grades completed.⁹ Without educational assistance and guidance, this great unused labor reserve has been barred from a significant place in the Nation's food-production program.

Lack of education naturally results in inefficient methods. The low-income farm enterprise is often characterized by such "inefficiencies" as unbalanced livestock rations, lack of farm-grown protein crops, such as legume hays, failure to use limestone and fertilizer in seeding of legumes, poor planting methods, improper care of livestock, and unvaccinated livestock.

The food-production effort is not aided materially by a farmer's feeding 400 bushels of corn to wormy hogs in a mud puddle, or feeding timothy hay to milk cows when, with a little planning and some limestone, good quality legume hay could be grown. Correction of these inefficiencies requires an intense "on the farm" educational program.

4. *Lack of secure tenure.*—One of the principal obstacles to full utilization of manpower for the production of food is the low-income farmer's unstable relationship with the land.

Few people who have not actually farmed have a full realization of the effect of uncertain tenure on farm production. Simply the psychological effect of not knowing if he can stay on the farm another year, or of waiting until near moving date before leasing a farm, discourages a tenant from making the improvements in fences, hog houses, poultry houses, or watering facilities; storing the necessary feeds for carrying over livestock; making soil improvements such as liming and plowing under green manures; planning and carrying out a complete crop rotation; or planning crops which carry over into the succeeding year.

Misunderstanding between landlord and tenant often results in ineffective production. One may prevent the other from following more effective practices, such as increasing the acreage of certain crops, growing a garden, or keeping subsistence livestock for family living.

In addition to those who farm ineffectively because of uncertainty about tenure arrangements, hundreds of thousands frequently disrupt their farming operations by moving from one farm to another. The 1940 census shows that 998,300 farmers in that year were operating farms to which they moved during 1939 and the first 3 months of 1940. It can be deduced from these figures that approximately a half-million farmers move each year. If it costs \$50 for each move, the total cost of moving, other than the costs of wasted time and effort, would amount to about \$25,000,000 annually.¹⁰

Insecure tenure, occasioned immediately by short-term or verbal leases, restrictive and burdensome leases, results in destructive cash-cropping, inefficiency, uncertainty, lack of tenant resources, and additional costs both to the tenant and the landlord.

⁹ Bureau of Agricultural Economics study by Olaf Larson, mentioned earlier.

¹⁰ This estimate of the cost of each move by the average tenant was included in the "Report of the President's Committee on Farm Tenancy", 1937, p. 58.

5. *Lack of cooperative facilities.*—Often the obstacles in the way of full production and full employment on the farm—adequate equipment, livestock, seed, or marketing facilities, for examples—cannot be met by the farmer alone even if credit and supervision are available for these things. The reason is that his farm operations cannot support his individual purchase of such necessities.

Farmers have met this difficulty all over the country by going in together and buying tools, equipment, livestock, and other goods, and maintaining necessary facilities cooperatively. By buying together in bulk they save money; by operating equipment and facilities together, they spread costs and get the use of the best equipment; and by selling together they save charges, reach new markets, and get better prices.

Low-income farmers have conspicuously been unable to take advantage of cooperatives. Except for the several hundred thousand participating in Farm Security Administration cooperatives, there are very few low-income members of the Nation's cooperative enterprises. The big obstacle has simply been that low-income farmers have not had enough cash to pay cooperative membership fees or to establish cooperatives of their own.

Of all farmers, low-income farmers need cooperatives most of all. They cannot afford to buy tools and equipment alone for their small acreages; their livestock needs improvement through better breeding; they need to cut costs on such purchases as fertilizer, feed, and seed if they are to make ends meet; and they need some way to market their produce cheaply if their labor is not to go to waste.

The potential output of thousands of acres and thousands of man-hours have been wasted because low-income, underemployed farmers were not able to get the savings and services made available by cooperative organization.

6. *Poor health.*—Unused manpower on the American farm is often ill-fed, ill-housed, and ill-clothed manpower. The resulting poor health stands as a barrier to the full realization of the productive possibilities of these farmers.

Indicative of poor health among low-income farm people are the facts brought out by studies made of Farm Security Administration borrowers. In 21 typical counties in 17 States, thorough physical examinations were given in 1940 to Farm Security Administration borrowers and their families—11,497 people. An average of more than 3½ defects was found for every man, woman, and child. Poor teeth was the most common defect. Teeth, physicians and dentists agree, are directly affected by diet. About 1 in every 10 children under 15 years of age was 16 percent or more underweight.

Most families had accumulated defects over the years, as a result of lack of medical and dental care. For instance, 54.2 percent of wives in white families were suffering from childbirth injuries; 8.5 percent of heads of families had hernias; 60.5 percent of all children had defective tonsils.

It is impossible for a sick farm family to do a good job of farm production.

SUMMARY

There are four characteristics of low-income farm families that thrust them into the spotlight at this time when immense war food production is being planned.

First, these families have great numbers—they make up about two-fifths of the Nation's total of productive farm operators. Their individual resources are small, but their combined resources are significant.

Second, these families have millions of hours of unused manpower—about half of their available manpower forced into idleness because of lack of resources or resource organization.

Third, these families have great food production possibilities—each small unit is capable of making a proportionately large contribution by better utilizing resources and labor.

Fourth, these families are disadvantaged—they need immediate aid to remove obstacles that are in the path of their producing great quantities of food for freedom.

One more important characteristic of the Nation's low-income farmer needs to be mentioned in connection with war food production. That is his favorable attitude toward increasing farm production. The low-income farmer with only a small part of the Nation's commercial market wants to produce more with a little help—he knows his potentialities and wants to fulfill them.

II. WAR FOOD PRODUCTION POSSIBILITIES OF LOW-INCOME FARMERS

The army of 1,759,000 underemployed low-income farmers could, if given the proper opportunity, produce a substantial part of the Nation's increased food requirements, as set forth in the United States Department of Agriculture production goals as of January 16, 1942.¹¹

If the production powers of these low-income farmers were harnessed to the food for freedom effort immediately, this group of farmers could produce the following amounts of the food increases called for in 1942:¹²

- 16 percent of the milk.
- 35 percent of the pork and lard.
- 40 percent of the eggs.
- 12 percent of the peanuts.
- 6.4 percent of the soybeans.
- 17 percent of the sugar beets.
- 46 percent of the tomatoes for canning.
- 97 percent of the increased gardens.

These proportions of the 1942 food increases could be produced this year by these low-income farmers—farmers who otherwise would stand or sit idly by, unable to participate fully in producing for their Nation's defense. By 1943 when a full production cycle has been attained by these farmers, their production capacity would be immensely increased.

Assuming that the needed increases in food production will be as great in 1943 as in 1942, then in 1943 these 1,759,000 underemployed farmers could produce:

- 32 percent of the needed milk.
- 39 percent of the pork and lard.
- 79 percent of the eggs.
- 12 percent of the peanuts.
- 6.4 percent of the soybeans.
- 17 percent of the sugar beets.
- 46 percent of the tomatoes for canning.
- 97 percent of the increased gardens.

Of course, it is physically impossible to reach all of these underemployed farmers immediately; nor would they all respond to an increased production program. However, the Farm Security Administration has estimated that a program could be developed to reach 802,000 farmers in this group within the next year. (These do not include the 435,000 farmers now on Farm Security Administration's standard rehabilitation program.) The details of this food production program are explained later in this report; it remains for the paragraphs immediately following to set forth the extent to which these 820,000 low-income farmers might increase the Nation's food supply in the next 2 years.

Production for defense

The 802,000 low-income farmers that might be reached immediately with a new food-for-freedom program are constituted as follows:

- 606,000 are full-time farmers.
- 88,000 are part-time farmers.
- 106,000 are sharecroppers.

Of this group, 55,000 are in the West, 374,000 in the South, 255,000 in the Midwest, and 118,000 in the Northeast.

The following table shows the amounts of vital war foods that could be produced by these farmers in 1942 and 1943:

¹¹ Farm Security Administration specialists, with the collaboration of people from the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, have developed the quoted estimates of increased production of war foods which these underemployed, low-income farmers could produce if they (1) followed improved methods of production; (2) secured access to operating capital such as feed, seed, fertilizer, limestone; (3) added some permanent capital such as sows, baby chicks, or heifer calves; (4) improved their health; and (5) obtained more stable tenure. These estimates were based on farm management studies of Farm Security Administration borrowers and other low-income farmers. For purposes of the study the Nation was divided into 4 major regions and 17 types of farming areas; in each of these areas production estimates were developed for the following categories of farmers: Full-time farmers, part-time farmers, sharecroppers, and irrigated and dry land farmers (in the West only). This study was planned and carried out by the Planning and Analysis Section, Rural Rehabilitation Division, Farm Security Administration.

¹² These figures refer to the January 16, 1942, increases in the Department of Agriculture's food goals over 1941 actual production.

War food production from 802,000 low-income farmers compared with national war food goals

Commodity	United States increased production needed over 1941	Increased production by 802,000 low-income farmers			
		1942		1943	
		Amount	Percent of United States increase	Amount	Percent of United States increase
	<i>Thousands</i>	<i>Thousands</i>		<i>Thousands</i>	
Milk.....pounds..	8,500,000	858,500	10.1	1,682,000	19.8
Pork and lard (live weight).....do.....	2,520,000	504,000	20.0	571,082	22.7
Chickens, meat (live weight).....do.....	708,400	61,233	8.6	61,233	8.6
Eggs.....dozen.....	447,000	98,340	22.0	189,781	42.5
Soybeans.....bushels.....	53,465	1,974	3.7	1,974	3.7
Peanuts.....pounds.....	2,277,000	125,346	5.5	125,346	5.5
Sugar beets (raw sugar).....tons.....	332	27	8.1	27	8.1
Tomatoes (canning).....do.....	747	157	21.0	157	21.0
Gardens.....acres.....	433	195	44.0	195	44.0

¹ This is the amount of increase of the 1942 national goals over 1941 actual production set by the U. S. Department of Agriculture on Jan. 16, 1942.

² These are estimates of the production which could be secured if the necessary canning contracts can be obtained.

It is evident that these 802,000 underemployed farmers could produce a substantial part of the Nation's increased food requirements in 1943—specifically, one-fifth of the milk, pork, and lard, two-fifths of the eggs, a smaller part of the soybeans, peanuts, and sugar beets, a substantial part of the truck crops and over two-fifths of the garden increase needed.

Of course, part of this increased production would be consumed by these families on the farm, but three-fourths of the milk, pork, and lard, all the soybeans, peanuts, sugar beets, and truck crops, and about 70 percent of the eggs would be available for sale.

The most significant increase in production would be made by the 606,000 full-time low-income farmers who would be able to supply more than 90 percent of the milk, pork, and truck crops, about 85 percent of the eggs, and all the soybeans, peanuts, and sugar beets which could be produced by the low-income group.

The small part-time farming group would contribute some eggs and milk for sale and considerable amounts of pork, some milk, and a substantial quantity of garden produce for home use. The increased production of the sharecropper group would consist largely of milk, pork, poultry, and garden products which would be used at home.

That this substantial food production is possible by low-income farmers—farmers who are now contributing little or nothing to the Nation's supply of vital foods—is indicated by the actual records of low-income families on the Farm Security Administration's rural rehabilitation program.

The average Farm Security Administration rehabilitation borrower has increased his gross cash receipts by \$187 since coming on the program. Using 1936-40 prices, the increase in gross cash receipts among these 802,000 potential food-producing low-income farmers would be \$165 if they were aided in producing food for freedom. Moreover, while the average Farm Security Administration borrower has increased the value of his home-use products by \$101, the expected increase for this other group would average \$70. It is apparent, then, that the above estimates of food production by the 802,000 low-income farmers are very conservative.

Where low-income farmers can produce

Low-income farmers in the Midwest and the South have the greatest potentialities for food production increases of any areas of the Nation. The Midwest, particularly in the southern part and in the upper-lake area, has large numbers of underemployed farmers together with fair land resources, equipment and machinery, fair marketing and processing facilities and good transportation. The South has much greater labor surpluses, but fewer marketing and processing

facilities and less productive land. The Northeast has the advantage of excellent marketing facilities. The West, with fewer low-income farmers than other areas, can make substantial contributions in sugar beet, truck, and egg production, particularly in the Pacific area.

In the following paragraphs the production potentialities of low-income farmers are broken down by geographical areas for purposes of illustration.

Midwest.—In the Midwest, the production possibilities are good for soybeans, truck and garden crops, and all livestock products.

In arriving at these production possibilities, increases have been computed separately for each major type of farming area. As an example of the production potentialities of these farmers, the following analysis is presented of what the 85,000 farmers that could be reached in the lower Midwest (eastern Kansas, southern Iowa, all of Missouri, southern Illinois, southern Indiana, and southern Ohio) could be able to do:

(1) Thirteen thousand farmers could buy 1 cow from a neighbor or one that was going to market, which, under improved feeding and management, would produce 600 pounds more milk than she formerly produced.

(2) Twenty-eight thousand one hundred and ninety farmers could buy or hold one of their own heifers which in 1943 would produce 3,500 pounds of milk.

(3) Sixty-four thousand and seventy farmers, through improved practices—such as feeding of grain and legume hay—could increase the production on their 5-cow herds by 600 pounds per cow.

(4) Sixty-four thousand and seventy farmers could produce one extra litter of pigs and could, by better care and feeding of sows, by moving pigs out on clear ground, by vaccinating for cholera and by feeding balanced rations, increase pork production on their litters by 500 pounds.

(5) Sixty-four thousand and seventy farmers could increase their poultry flocks by 50 hens by buying and growing out baby chicks and could, by improved methods, increase egg production on the present 50-hen flocks by 2 dozen per hen.

(6) Eight thousand five hundred farmers near canning factories could increase production of some truck crop by 1 acre each.

The South.—Here the possibilities are good for large increases in production of eggs and peanuts, substantial increases in milk and pork for home use and for sale, and large increases in garden products for home use.

As an example of the southern food production increases, the following estimates are shown for the 133,745 underemployed, low-income farmers in the cotton-tobacco area of the South who could be reached immediately with a food program:

(1) Twenty percent, or 26,750 farmers, could buy 1 cow from a neighbor or one going to market which would produce 360 pounds more milk than would have been produced otherwise—if improved practices and supervision are provided.

(2) Thirty percent of 40,125 farmers could buy one heifer which would produce 3,000 pounds of milk in 1943.

(3) Twenty percent or 26,750 farmers could, through improved methods, increase the production of their present cow by 360 pounds of milk.

(4) Thirty-five percent or 46,811 could produce 6 additional pigs.

(5) Forty percent or 53,498 could produce 25 extra pounds of pork from each of their present 4 pigs.

(6) Eighty percent or 107,000 could care for 100 baby chicks and next year add 40 hens to their flocks.

(7) Fifty percent or 66,870 could grow 2 additional acres of peanuts.

(8) All of the farmers could produce a garden.

The Northeast.—The low-income farmers in the Northeast are in a position to make large increases in egg production, considerable in milk and truck crop production increases, and large increases in home-garden production. As an example of how this increased production could be secured, estimates below are given for the 79,000 underemployed farmers in the dairy area of New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, southern Vermont, and New Hampshire. Of the 59,250 who could probably be reached by an immediate food program, it is estimated that—

(1) Twenty-five percent or 14,812 could buy 1 cow which would produce 300 pounds more milk than would have been produced otherwise.

(2) Sixty-six percent or 39,105 could buy or hold back 1 heifer which would produce 3,000 pounds of milk.

(3) Eighty percent or 47,400 could produce 450 pounds per cow more milk on the present 6-cow herd.

- (4) Twenty-five percent or 14,812 could produce 4 extra pigs.
- (5) Seventy-five percent or 44,438 could handle 75 extra hens.
- (6) Ten percent or 5,925 could grow 1 extra acre of truck crops.
- (7) One hundred percent or 59,250 could grow a home garden.

The West.—Although low-income farmers in the West are relatively few in number, they can make substantial increases in the production of eggs, sugar beets, some truck crops, and garden crops. As an example of the production possibilities in the West, the following estimates are given for the irrigated farms in the California-Utah-Idaho area (it was assumed that half of the low-income farmers in this area would respond to a war food-production program):

(1) Forty percent could buy one cow which would produce 200 pounds more milk than would have been produced otherwise.

(2) Forty percent could buy or hold back one heifer which would produce 3,000 pounds of milk in 1943.

(3) Forty percent could increase the production on their present herd by 200 pounds of milk per cow.

(4) Twenty percent could produce five extra pigs and 40 percent could produce 200 extra pounds of pork on the present hog enterprise.

(5) Forty percent could handle 75 extra hens.

(6) Fifteen percent could produce 8 additional acres of sugar beets.

(7) Fifteen percent could produce 5 additional acres of truck crops.

(8) Forty percent could produce a home garden.

The foregoing estimates of food production have been calculated with the greatest conservatism, taking into account all possible factors that would tend to limit such production. No attempt has been made in this paper to explain the detailed procedure followed in arriving at the estimates. However, it might be noted here that each estimate combines factual data and expert testimony of persons familiar with the characteristics and productivity of types of farms by geographical areas throughout the county.

III. ASSISTANCE NEEDED FOR WAR FOOD PRODUCTION BY LOW-INCOME FARMERS

There is no simple remedy for the defects in the underemployed low-income farmer's production mechanism. Many obstacles stand in the way of his producing abundantly the food that this Nation needs to win the war. At the same time, these obstacles are clear-cut enough for a simple program to be devised to help this farmer produce food for freedom on a large scale.

In the following paragraphs the high points of a proposed program will be reviewed. In most respects this proposed program is very similar to the present rehabilitation program of the Farm Security Administration. One important distinction must be made: The primary purpose of the present Farm Security Administration program is rehabilitation; the primary purpose of the following proposed program is war food production.

Loans

The underemployed farmer needs additional capital—credit to enable him to buy the means of production.

For a credit program to be effective in helping the low-income farmer to increase his production of vital war foods, the purposes to which this credit may be put must be rigidly directed. Otherwise, unintentional stimulus may be given to inflation of farm land, livestock, and equipment prices with a resulting waste of capital and consequent inflationary tendencies.

In a new war food production program for low-income farmers, credit must be directed to—

(1) Increase the acreage, and increase the efficiency of the production, of the crops needed

(2) Get livestock on farms needing it, such as—

(a) Gilts for breeding.

(b) Baby chicks.

(c) Cows headed for slaughter which are still fair producers.

(d) Heifer calves which would otherwise be vealed.

(3) Buy feed and seed.

(4) Buy fertilizer and limestone.

(5) Buy implement and machinery repairs.

(6) Pay operating costs during the production season in order for the farmer to hold his crops and livestock until ready for sale.

(7) Buy work stock.

Such a credit program would not involve large loans; the situation does not demand them. In the estimated production outlined earlier for the 800,000 low-income farmers to be reached immediately the loan requirements averaged less than \$300 per farm. This would require a total fund available for credit for low-income farmers of about \$238,880,000.

The purposes for which this gross amount of loans would be needed are as follows:

(1) Livestock.....	\$49, 926, 578
(2) Feed and seed.....	76, 605, 175
(3) Lime and fertilizer.....	25, 020, 465
(4) Other operating costs.....	87, 327, 255
Total.....	238, 879, 473

To do the job, this credit program would have to be streamlined to the *n*th degree, with all red tape eliminated. Rates must be reasonable and service prompt. Every cent must be utilized for production.

The lending of this \$238,880,000 would continue to help low-income farmers produce food for freedom for several years, inasmuch as nearly half of the entire amount of these loans would go for capital goods which would continue to produce year in and year out.

At the same time, despite the fact that the expenditure of these funds as loans would provide a productive stimulus for several years to come, the returns from such loans would be immediate. It is estimated that the total value of the new war food produced by these 802,000 low-income farmers in 1943 would amount to \$260,000,000. This should provide for a substantial repayment of these loan funds within a 2-year period, in addition to adding measurably to the Nation's supply of essential foods.

Supervision

Large-scale food production by low-income farmers will require intensive supervision by both technical and nontechnical people. In addition to the guidance of farm and home supervisors provided by the Government for such purposes, the participation of successful local farmers in neighborhood supervisory activities must be encouraged.

Supervision for war food production would stress: (1) Home food production, (2) food preparation, (3) farm and home planning, (4) development of simple farm and home skills, and (5) improvement in farm practices. In the critical seasons many families on the war food-production program will need the benefits of a supervisory visit each month. A large part of the supervision could be done through groups on one individual's farm or in his house. A minimum of pencil work by the families should be required.

Tenure improvement

Uncertain and unstable tenure arrangements must be eliminated if the low-income farmer is to be put in a position where he can produce food for freedom. Landlords and tenants should enter into written lease contracts for a term of at least 2 years and preferably 5 years, providing (1) specific designation of the war foods to be produced; (2) protection of the tenant's investment in improvements necessary for war food production; (3) space for garden and food storage; (4) automatic renewal for at least the duration of the war emergency; and (5) specific designation of yield-increasing farm practices such as liming, seeding legumes, growing winter crops, etc.

Landlord-tenant relations should be improved in general. War food production is impossible without the finest cooperation between the two parties. Local war boards, the agricultural press, and agricultural workers should inform landlords and tenants of the importance of stable tenure in the war-food program.

Cooperative efforts

Cooperative devices must be utilized to spread the loan money as far as possible among potential low-income food producers and to enable them to make the best use of their credit.

Specifically, cooperatives must help low-income farmers:

(1) Increase their production—through better livestock breeding by jointly owned sires or artificial breeding services, through purchases of better feed, seed, and fertilizers in bulk, and so forth.

(2) Make better use of their resources—by operating and repairing jointly owned machinery and equipment, by salvaging scrap metal, etc.

(3) Market their products quickly and at a profit—through jointly owned facilities, warehouses, and transportation services.

Loans must be made to enable farmers to establish and participate in local co-operative groups for production purposes. Part of the individual loans for capital goods and such operating items as livestock, feed, and seed should be spent by borrowers through cooperative groups.

Medical care

Provisions must be made in the farm and home plans of every low-income war food producer for home production of enough good food to provide the entire family with an adequate diet. Provisions must also be made for the improvement of sanitary facilities, screens, water supplies, bedding, and other farm and home items whose improvement makes for better health.

Disabilities such as hernia, bad teeth and tonsils, infected adenoids, and other physical handicaps must be removed if low-income farmers are to be strong enough for the war food production job under the proposed program. This means an expansion of all medical services in rural areas.

THE LONG-RUN OBJECTIVE

More fundamental than what can be done to help disadvantaged low-income farm people produce food for freedom is what can be done to make more worth while the freedom that is being defended.

Participating in the food for freedom program helps low-income farmers feel that they have a part in the defense of their democracy. But that is not enough. These are the people without adequate opportunities for self-development, without adequate training for better jobs, without an adequate share of the Nation's education and resources. These are the people, constituting a vast proportion of the Nation's farm population, to whom democracy has meant the least and still means the least of any group in the country.

It has been pointed out that the immediate objective of the proposed production program for low-income farm families is to produce vital war foods. That objective cannot be achieved alone by loans and supervision and the other techniques mentioned above, however. Beyond these means of assistance must be a powerful effort to open up for the Nation's low-income farm population a way of life, a future, a world of opportunities, that constitute the blessings of democracy.

It must be guaranteed that there is the opportunity for the ultimate ownership of land, not merely because land ownership might mean a better economic future, but because land ownership means the achievement of status, of amounting to something, of being somebody.

There must be developed vocational opportunities for the youth on the Nation's low-income farms, tomorrow's citizens who can find hope only through opportunity to get ahead and become self-reliant on their own. There must be opportunities for good education in elementary and secondary schools, for training in special skills, for normal intellectual development.

There must be opened up to low-income farm people the opportunity to become an important and integral part of the farm community, to close the gap that seems to stand between the disadvantaged and the more fortunate in agriculture. There must be the opportunity for neighborhood activities, for discussion groups, for community recreation, for free expression of religious convictions.

Only if these opportunities are opened up for the disadvantaged, low-income farm families of this Nation will producing food for freedom mean all that it might. For the democracy that is being defended by that production is ultimately the democracy of the common man and woman whose individual development, whose status, whose place under the sun are and always have been the most fundamental idea of the democratic way of life.

IV. LABOR CAMPS AND THE WAR FOOD PROGRAM

As has been pointed out, a substantial part of the Nation's food production can be contributed by low-income farmers. This production can be achieved without great concern over the problem of hired labor. Of the total agricultural work force, only a quarter work for wages. The rest are bound to farming by the more stable ties of tenure or family relationship. The hired farm laborers, however, are employed in the production of some of the vital war foods. Pro-

duction must be increased on farms of all sizes and types, and adequate supply and proper distribution of hired farm labor remains a big problem.

In the solution of the agricultural labor problem the system of labor camps developed by the Farm Security Administration can play an important part. The various functions of the Farm Security Administration camps can best be demonstrated in relation to the farm labor situation as it developed during the past year.

Farm labor supply situation

In the course of the 1941 crop season a drastic shift in the focus of attention on farm labor occurred. Throughout the decade of the 1930's there were huge surpluses of unemployed farm workers. Wages and living and working conditions were at rock-bottom levels. In some areas, where migration was heaviest, there were three and four and more workers for every job. During 1941, however, attention shifted rapidly to the problems of shortages.

There are several lines along which steps should be taken to make sure that farm production will not be held back by inadequate supplies of hired farm labor. For several of these measures, Farm Security Administration camps can be of much assistance.

Rationalization of farm labor force

Use of the farm labor force in the past has been as wasteful as the exploitation of any of our natural resources. In fact, there is a striking parallel with the huge waste which marked the use of land in America until recently. Because there were vast expanses of unplowed land, areas in cultivation were wastefully exploited. Similarly, because there were large over-supplies of farm labor, particularly in the last ten years, the farm labor force was used in a strikingly inefficient manner. This was especially the case with seasonal labor. Workers were employed only a few days a week and sometimes only a few hours a day. Hiring practices were haphazard and based on the assumption that it was unnecessary to recruit labor systematically.

This complete lack of organization resulted in much hardship to farm wage workers. It must be ended now to insure maximum farm production and attainment of war goals. Noticeable progress was made during 1941. For example, increasing reliance was placed upon the farm placement service, which had already demonstrated its potentialities for rationalization of the farm labor market in Texas and the Pacific Northwest. The experience of 1941 demonstrated that workers attached to agriculture must be employed not 30 or 40 percent of the time but as nearly 100 percent of the time as possible during the crop seasons. Aside from reliance on the farm placement service, growers themselves have made strides in this direction, particularly on the west coast where the problems of seasonal labor are most acute. For example, growers in one southern California county proposed the use of a common labor pool so that workers might shift from one crop to another as successive labor requirement peaks were reached, with a minimum loss of time either in looking for jobs or in looking for workers.

As will be discussed below, Farm Security Administration camps can play an important part in this process of rationalization.

Central importance of wages

It is significant that, on the one hand, agriculture uses a smaller proportion of hired labor than any other major part of our entire economy, and that, on the other hand, farmer employers have been very much concerned over the labor shortage. The simple explanation, of course, is that agriculture has been losing labor to other industries. While many differences between farm and industrial employment can be pointed out, the difference in the level of wage rates is certainly the most important.

Over and over again it was demonstrated during the past season that low wages lay behind the appearance of stringency in the farm labor market. A difficulty of this sort, however, can more easily be pointed out than overcome. One quite basic approach to the problem is the setting up of a system of wage boards. Another approach frequently proposed is the giving to farm workers of additional perquisites, including improvements in housing. Here, too, the Farm Security Administration camp program is of importance, since the camps make possible increases in real income of farm workers.

Redistribution of farm labor supply

Farm labor scarcities have not occurred evenly throughout the entire country. There has been considerable difficulty in getting sufficient labor in some places while surpluses remained in others.

These differences are symptomatic of a more basic problem which has existed over a period of years. Distribution of the farm working population does not correspond accurately to the distribution of the most important areas of farm production. Areas in which land is more exhausted, or in which production is held back by a variety of handicaps including debt and lack of mechanization, suffer from relative overpopulation. The streams of migratory farm workers set up in various parts of the country are, in part, a byproduct of the pressure of this type of relative overpopulation.

The fact that migration of seasonal farm workers does take place indicates that the problem is at least partially solving itself. But this "hit or miss" type of solution is slow, inefficient, and brings with it the greatest possible amount of hardship. It certainly cannot be counted on by itself to insure the labor force needed for war production.

There has been a tendency in the past to view migration in and of itself as an unmitigated evil. Actually, the evil lay in the manner in which migration had to be carried out. Controlled migration between areas of lesser and greater need for labor, if backed up by adequate provision for transportation, housing, and wage rates, can be of the greatest benefit to the war effort, and in the long run to the general efficiency of our economy.

An example of what can be accomplished through controlled migration was seen last spring on the Pacific coast. Strawberry pickers were needed in Oregon. An over supply of pickers was present in California. Growers in Oregon went to the State employment service with their problem. They arranged with State employment officials in California for the transfer of strawberry pickers who were idle there. The pickers were recruited in Farm Security Administration camps in California. Their transportation was arranged by the growers and employment officials. On arrival in Oregon, they were again housed in Farm Security Administration camps.

The entire operation was considered successful and of benefit to all groups concerned. Labor force shifts of this type become increasingly necessary during 1942 and 1943. As can be seen from the above account of last year's west coast experience, Farm Security Administration camps can play an important part in such transfers.

Uses of the Farm Security Administration camp program

Camps for migratory farm workers were first developed by the Farm Security Administration in the middle of the 1930's. They were introduced in California to help alleviate some of the hardships facing migratory farm workers there.

The first camps were fixed in location. They provided shelter in the form of tent platforms and sometimes cabins. Emphasis was placed upon sanitary and health facilities. There were community laundries, showers, clinics, nurseries, and community halls where camp meetings, social functions, and religious activities could be carried on. Since many migrants must depend on their cars for transportation, automobile repair shops were provided in some camps.

Later mobile camps of much the same nature were developed. Laundries, showers, and clinics were mounted on trailers. All equipment was designed for easy removal from one location to another. This type of mobile camp was developed to meet the special problems of staggered peaks of labor requirements moving from one area to another. That is, the camps were designed insofar as possible to follow the migratory workers as they in turn follow the crops.

Each camp is designed to accommodate 100 or more families. Mobile camps can be broken into smaller units. Costs of operation as well as of construction are borne by the Farm Security Administration. However, as much of the camp management as possible is carried on democratically by the camp residents themselves.

As can be seen from this short description the first camps were designed to protect migratory farm workers and the communities through which they pass from the worst effects of a migrant life. However, during the last few years new uses for the Farm Security camps have developed as the nature of the farm labor supply situation has changed.

1. Originally the Farm Security Administration camps were not designed to bring in new supplies of workers since they were originated in a period of over-supply. It has now been shown that in situations where lack of decent shelter keeps farm workers from entering an area which needs them, Farm Security Administration camps can help remove the bottleneck. This is particularly true of Farm Security Administration mobile camps which can be shifted to meet needs which arise suddenly. This need for Farm Security Administration camps is demonstrated by the fact that in many of the localities reporting farm labor changes during 1941, lack of adequate housing was prominently mentioned among the difficulties.

2. Both permanent and mobile camps can serve as central points in which farm workers can be gathered in considerable numbers. This smooths the way for the job of farm placement officials in recruiting large numbers of workers. Similarly the camps can be used as a base from which to plan the most efficient routing of workers to and from jobs.

3. Labor camps can serve to increase the employability and productivity of farm workers in several ways. Since small children can be left in nurseries more adults are freed for jobs. In a more general way employability is increased by decent medical and sanitary facilities. Finally the camps have demonstrated that they can make a very significant contribution to morale which is recognized at this point as being one of the key factors in labor productivity. Productivity is also increased by virtue of the fact that Farm Placement men can use the camps as a base from which to shift workers to new jobs more rapidly. Naturally output goes up as waiting periods are cut down.

4. Labor camps can assist in overcoming the very difficult problems of transportation which will face agriculture as well as all other industries in the coming war years. With supplies of automobiles and tires virtually cut off there will be serious trouble in the shifting of farm workers from one area to another. Emphasis, therefore, will have to be placed on the movement of farm workers and their families in large groups by bringing otherwise scattered workers together at central points. The Farm Security Administration camps will help in this process.

5. Camp facilities can be converted for emergency use outside of agriculture. For example, the camps could be used for housing other types of defense workers in rural areas after the completion of harvests. Similarly the camps may prove a valuable resource if evacuation from coastal areas becomes a necessity.

It will be noted above that increasing emphasis is placed upon mobile type camps. This process can and may have to be carried even further. Mobile units of even simpler design may have to be adopted partly because needs are likely to arise suddenly and unpredictably and partly also because shortage of some material may make improvised design necessary.

Some of the uses of Farm Security Administration labor homes are similar to those of the camps. Through the labor homes program low cost houses for stably employed farm workers are provided in areas of greatest need.

However, the labor homes program is particularly adapted to family needs. And these needs are likely to increase. As single men are drawn into the Army an increasing proportion of married men with families will have to be hired for year-round help. The married men cannot be housed in facilities usually provided for single men and in such instances the labor homes program will add to the stability of the farm labor force.

Requests for Farm Security Administration camp facilities

As new uses for Farm Security Administration camps have developed, requests for extension of camp facilities have increased. Reconnaissance studies, undertaken by the Farm Security Administration, have revealed large and important areas in which camps are needed but have not yet been established. For example, testimony in the records of the Tolan committee indicates a migratory stream of major importance along the Atlantic seaboard. To date the camp program has only entered this area at its southern extreme in Florida. However, construction of mobile units is in prospect for areas farther to the north along the Atlantic.

A change in response toward the Farm Security Administration program has been marked. Localities formerly unreceptive and in some cases even hostile to the Farm Security Administration camp program now express deep interest as problems develop which camps would help to solve. It is interesting to note that in the reasons advanced for requesting extension of Farm Security Administration camp facilities the function of the Farm Security Administration

camps as a center of farm labor supply is mentioned very nearly as frequently as the need for adequate shelter.

A considerable number of farm labor subcommittees of the State and county agricultural planning committees have proposed the building of additional Farm Security Administration camps. At least 16 State committees have either requested extension of the program or have expressed considerable interest. These States are Arizona, Connecticut, Delaware, Maryland, Kansas, New Mexico, Virginia, Ohio, Missouri, Texas, New Jersey, South Carolina, Florida, Colorado, Georgia, and South Dakota. More than 50 counties within these States have requested camps, and it is understood that the problem is now being considered in a considerable number of other key areas.

Following is a list of camp sites recommended by State and county agricultural planning committees.

Farm Security Administration camp sites recommended by State and county agricultural planning committees

State	County	Number of proposed sites	Reason for proposing camp	
			Housing	Labor supply center
Arizona.....	Maricopa.....	4	×	×
	Pinal.....			
	Yuma.....	2	×	×
California.....	Contra Costa.....			
	Colusa.....			
	Kern.....			
	Lake.....			
	Merced.....			
	Monterey.....			
	Napa.....			
	San Benito.....			
	Santa Barbara.....			
	Sanoma.....			
	Stanislaus.....			
	Tehama.....			
Connecticut.....	Hartford.....	1	{	×
	Tolland.....			
Colorado.....	State committee reported giving favorable consideration to program.			
Delaware.....	Sussex.....	1		×
	Kent.....	1		×
Florida.....	Broward.....	1		
Georgia.....	Terrell.....	1		
Kansas.....	Morton.....	1	X	X
	Stevens.....			
Maryland.....	Dorchester.....	1		X
	Somerset.....	2		X
	Washington.....	1		
	Wicomico.....	1		X
	Worcester.....	1	X	X
Missouri.....	Barry.....	1	X	X
	St. Louis.....	1	X	
New Jersey.....	(7).....			
New Mexico.....	Eddy.....	2	X	X
Ohio.....	Auglaize.....			
	Fulton.....	2	X	X
	Hancock.....	3	X	
	Hardin.....		X	
	Lucas.....	2		X
	Mercer.....		X	X
	Paulding.....	2	X	
	Sandusky.....	3-4	X	X
	Van Wert.....		X	
	Wood.....		X	X
South Carolina.....	Beaufort.....	1	{	
	Charleston.....			
South Dakota.....	Butte ¹			
Texas.....	Atacosa.....	1		
	Ellis.....			
	Knox.....	1		
	Maverick.....	1	X	X
	Wilbarger.....	1	X	
	Wharton.....			

¹ Recommended by county committee (not State).

Present Farm Security Administration camp and home program

There are now in operation 34 standard camps, 23 mobile camps, and 1 camp of the light-construction type consisting of temporary shelters with permanent community buildings—a total of 58 camps. At the present time 7 new standard camps, 27 mobile camps, 6 light-construction camps, and 3 labor homes projects are scheduled for construction in 1942. Of the 27 mobile units, 18 are to be located along the eastern seaboard.

The following table gives the location of Farm Security Administration labor camps and labor homes:

Farm Security Administration migratory labor camps and labor homes (now operating and to be completed in 1942)

State	Standard		Mobile		Light construction		Labor homes	
	Operat- ing	Com- pleted in 1942	Operat- ing	Com- pleted in 1942	Operat- ing	Com- pleted in 1942	Operat- ing	Com- pleted in 1942
California.....	13		6					
Arizona.....	3		3					
New Mexico.....				2				
Colorado.....		2			1			
Washington.....	3		2	3				
Oregon.....	1		7	2		1		
Idaho.....	2		5	2				
Total, West...	22	2	23	9	1	1		
Missouri.....								1
Arkansas.....						1		
Texas.....	7	1				4		1
Michigan.....		1						1
Total, Central...	7	2				5		3
Eastern Seaboard.....				18				
Florida.....	5	3						
Total, East...	5	3		18				
Grand total...	34	7	23	27	1	6		3

Need for additional units

Considerable expansion will be required to meet the needs which have arisen. It is estimated that in 1943 a total of 156 sites need to be served by migrant camps. Each of 30 of these sites would require a light construction camp to be built at a cost of about \$90,000, or a total for all camps of \$2,700,000. The other 126 sites could be served by 60 mobile units which could be constructed at a cost of about \$3,642,000, including the cost of site development.

It is estimated that approximately \$1,678,200 would be required to cover management and operating costs of these new migrant camps in 1943. This would make the total cost of construction and operation about \$8,020,200.

In addition, it is estimated that 1,000 farm labor homes will be needed at a construction and operating cost of about \$1,250,000. These homes are needed particularly in dairy and poultry areas where the shortage of regular hired hands has become acute. The places of single men will have to be taken by married men with families, but many farm operators in these areas do not have suitable living quarters for these workers and their dependents. The problem will become increasingly serious as more demands are made upon the dairy and poultry areas for additional quantities of food for freedom.

STATEMENT BY SHERMAN E. JOHNSON, HEAD, DIVISION OF FARM MANAGEMENT AND COSTS, BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

MECHANIZATION IN AGRICULTURE

The United States is better equipped for large-scale efficient agricultural production than at any time during the past 30 years. Total agricultural production for sale and use in the home, even with fewer workers on farms, is about one-third higher now than it was during 1910-14 and nearly one-fifth higher than during World War No. 1 (table 1). Increased production per worker has been even more pronounced, and now averages about 50 percent greater than in the 1910-14 period and 30 percent more than during the first World War. And the end is not yet in sight. For with farm workers going into the armed service and into industry, and with agricultural production on the increase, production per worker will go still higher, although this will require longer hours of farm work and probably a better distribution of our available agricultural workers.

TABLE 1.—Trends in farm employment and production, crop acres, work stock, and motor equipment, on farms, 1910-41¹

Item	1910	1920	1930	1940	1941
Employment in agricultur ²	100	94	93	87	85
Total production for sale and use in the home ²	100	108	120	132	136
Production per worker, for sale and use in the home ²	100	115	129	152	160
Acres of crops harvested..... millions.....	329	360	370	343	346
Numbers of horses and mules on farms, Jan. 1..... do.....	24	26	19	15	³ 14
Tractors on farms, Jan. 1..... thousands.....	1	246	920	1,545	³ 1,800
Trucks on farms, Jan. 1..... do.....		139	900	1,047	³ 1,050
Automobiles on farms, Jan. 1..... do.....	50	2,146	4,135	4,144	³ 4,200

¹ Estimates prepared by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics. See The Agricultural Situation February 1942.

² 1910 figures, pre-war years, 1910-14=100; 1920 is average for war years, 1917-20; 1930 is average for 1928-32; 1940 is average for 1939-41.

³ Jan. 1, 1942.

A major factor has been the increase in farm mechanization which is pretty well represented by the following change in the number of tractors, motortrucks, and automobiles on farms: In 1940 there were 1,545,000 tractors on farms compared with only 246,000 in 1920; 1,047,000 farm motortrucks compared with 139,000; and 4,144,000 automobiles compared with 2,146,000. Currently, it is estimated that there are about 1,800,000 tractors on farms, 1,050,000 motortrucks, and 4,200,000 automobiles—all constituting the greatest aggregation of mechanical farm power in the Nation's history.

The American farmer of today has a larger power unit, his implements and machines are larger, and the rate of travel greater than was the case 20 years ago. Equipment has steadily increased the efficiency of labor, as multiple-row implements and many useful gadgets have come with the tractor. The two-row corn picker, improved planters, small combines (the combine itself was not widely used before World War No. 1), windrow pick-up balers, beet lifters, and many other mechanical aids have found a place in American agriculture. Considerably less labor is now used for producing most of our agricultural crops than was used during World War No. 1.

FEWER HORSES AND MULES

During the last 20 years there also has been a decrease of about 11,000,000 head of horses and mules on farms, and 1,500,000 head in cities. Thus, mainly by a switch from horses and mules to the use of tractors, trucks, and automobiles, along with other labor-saving farm machinery, farm labor is no longer needed to produce 40,000,000 acres of crops previously used for the maintenance of work stock used largely for farm power.¹ What has really happened is that the farmers now sell a larger proportion of their production and buy more equipment, gasoline, and oil, instead of using their labor to produce feed for work stock.

¹ See also "Tractors Don't Eat Oats," by A. P. Brodell, Land Policy Review, August 1942.

Contributing to increased agricultural production per worker are the increased yields of several important crops. Soil-improvement practices, including a more extensive use of legumes, lime, and fertilizers, and the use of improved varieties and strains of seeds and plants have been factors in this increase. The greater use of only the better lands in some cases where crop acreages have been decreased has also resulted in higher average yields per acre. Improvements in livestock and production techniques have also helped to increase production per worker. These changes in themselves have stimulated the development of new machines and equipment.

The present farm plant is well equipped for heavy agricultural production. It can continue for some years to produce large supplies if farm machines and labor are not unduly depleted. With restrictions now placed upon the manufacture of farm machinery it is highly desirable for farmers fully to coordinate the use of machinery and labor supplies available in the neighborhood and to extend the working life of machines by proper and timely repairs.²

WAR NEEDS LIMIT NEW MACHINES

In the absence of restrictions on new machinery purchases, 1942 would have added substantially to farm mechanization, because prospective labor shortages, accompanying increases in wage rates, and currently high farm incomes all would stimulate farmer purchases. In addition, production needs of 1942 represent adjustments in many areas to new enterprises demanding some new equipment. Substantial need is evident in these adjustments for more combines, peanut pickers, haying equipment, milking machines, and several other items of mechanical equipment.³ Great as this demand may be, the unprecedented need of scarce materials in still more essential war industries determines the practical limit of farm equipment production in 1942.

The situation is not quite so dark when one considers the vast backlog of machinery and equipment that has been built up in recent years and, too, the selective manufacture of badly needed farm equipment that is now taking place.⁴ Past experience indicates that purchases of new machines can be cut down very considerably for one or two seasons if the existing inventory of farm machinery is fairly adequate. For example, purchases of new machinery in 1932 dropped to one-fifth of the purchases in 1929 as a result of greatly reduced farm income. But farmers had made liberal purchases of machinery in the period 1925-30, and therefore entered the depression period with a fairly adequate inventory. In the past 6 years, farmers likewise have made large purchases of machinery. For example, over one-half the tractors now on farms were purchased within the last 5 years. Farmers will start operations in 1942 with a fairly adequate farm machinery inventory, but their situation will be entirely different from 1931-33 in other respects.

Instead of workers piling up on farms because they could not find other employment, serious labor shortages are likely to develop in some areas in 1942. There were fewer farm workers in 1941 than in 1940. The downward trend is expected to continue at an accelerated rate in 1942. At the same time, national production goals call for increases in the production of livestock products, oil crops, and vegetables, resulting in a total volume of agricultural production at 119 percent of 1935-39. Compared with 1941 about 300,000 additional man-years of work are needed to produce the increased volume called for by the 1942 goals.

MECHANICAL AIDS TO INCREASED PRODUCTION

The high machinery inventory aids greatly in this situation, because certain machines are not only definitely of a labor-saving character but they also facilitate performing the farm operations in proper season, and may therefore increase both the quantity and quality of the output.⁵ Tractors are very important in facilitating timeliness of farm work. It is estimated that each new tractor (not counting replacement of worn-out tractors) will save approximately 450 hours of man labor annually if used on operations to which it is adapted, and if fitted with complementary equipment. Each grain combine cutting 220 acres of grain will save 1,000 hours of labor annually compared with binder and stationary thresher harvesting. A new corn picker will save about 420 hours on 140 acres of corn

² The preceding discussion is adapted largely from "To Win This War, Part II," by M. R. Cooper and A. P. Brodell, *The Agricultural Situation*, February 1942.

³ See *Agricultural Adjustment for Defense*, *The Agricultural Situation*, November 1941.

⁴ For details, see PM-1950, Office of Production Management, December 28, 1941.

⁵ For further development of this point, see *Modern Farm Practice and Mechanical Power*, A. P. Brodell and R. C. Tetro, *The Agricultural Situation*, May 1941.

compared with hand picking, and a new milking machine if used on a herd of 18 cows will save about 450 hours of hand-milking. It is evident that machinery is a very important substitute for labor on many farms.

As farming becomes more and more mechanized, a larger number of new machines is needed each year for purely replacement purposes. For example, about 125,000 new tractors will be needed next year to replace tractors worn out during the present year. There is also a continuing decline in the horse and mule population, and a large number of tractors will be needed in 1942 to replace worn-out work stock. Thus from 175,000 to 200,000 tractors will be needed for replacement purposes alone.

The value of a tractor in releasing labor for other jobs varies widely by types of operation. For example, in heavy-duty operations such as plowing, disking, and harvesting small grain, from 50 to 75 percent of the man labor used with horse equipment can be saved. From 25 to 50 percent can be saved in operations such as harrowing, cultivating, planting, drilling, and mowing, while little if any can be saved in hay raking or spraying.

FUEL CONSUMPTION

Closely paralleling the trend in mechanization has been the marked upward trend in the annual consumption of motor fuel and motor oil on farms because of the yearly increase in the number of automobiles, motortrucks, and tractors, and the increasing extent to which these vehicles are used on the average farm. It is estimated that the total amount of motor fuel used on farms in 1942 will amount to nearly 3,500,000,000 gallons compared with 3,232,000,000 gallons in 1940 and an average of 2,886,000,000 gallons in the period 1935-39. If an allowance is made for the use of the farm automobile by the farm family, about 2,500,000,000 gallons would be used in farm production. Of this, about 2,000,000,000 gallons would be in the form of gasoline and about 500,000,000 in the form of kerosene, distillates, and other tractor fuel.

Although the introduction of the smaller tractor has resulted in a noticeable decline in the fuel consumed per hour of tractor use on the farm, this decline has been more than offset by the increased number of hours that the average tractor is used. In a recent survey of the use of tractors on farms,⁶ farmers indicated that each tractor was used about 475 hours per year, the amount of use varying in the different State groups from 330 hours in the North Atlantic States to 650 hours in Oklahoma and Texas. Surveys made in 1935-36 indicated that at that time the average tractor was used only about 400 hours per year. The recent increase in usage has come about (in spite of the smaller acreage cultivated by farmers owning a tractor) because of the smaller size of tractors and because of the increased proportion of general-purpose tractors, which are used for all types of field and belt work on farms.

TABLE 2.—*Motor fuel and motor oil consumption on farms, 5-year averages 1910-39 and estimated 1940 and 1942*

[In millions of gallons]

Period	Motor fuel ¹				Motor oil			
	Automobiles	Motor-trucks	Tractors	Total ²	Automobiles	Motor-trucks	Tractors	Total ²
1910-14.....	29.9	1.4	41.7	110	1.5	0.1	2.9	6
1915-19.....	215.4	18.7	207.0	494	11.2	1.2	14.3	29
1920-24.....	611.1	82.0	329.8	1,084	27.7	4.1	21.0	56
1925-29.....	1,139.6	235.1	561.4	2,001	45.1	10.2	27.7	86
1930-34.....	1,241.5	324.5	741.5	2,375	44.0	12.4	28.6	88
1935-39.....	1,406.2	338.5	1,074.0	2,886	45.9	11.8	36.0	97
1940 ³	1,558.2	341.2	1,265.4	3,232	52.1	10.9	40.0	106
1942 ⁴	1,600.0	400.0	1,400.0	3,470	53.0	12.0	44.0	112

¹ Gasoline for automobiles and motortrucks; gasoline, kerosene, and distillate for tractors.

² Includes an estimate of fuel and oil used by stationary engines on farms.

³ Preliminary.

⁴ Tentative estimate.

Source: Estimates prepared by Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

⁶ Results of this survey are now being prepared for publication by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the Agricultural Marketing Service.

FARM USE OF RUBBER

A survey of rubber tires on farm machines was made in February 1941.⁷ At that time, as during the past decade or more, crude rubber supplies in the United States were plentiful and prices of tires and other rubber products were low. With the beginning of war in the Pacific, rubber tires have suddenly become of tremendous concern. The reason for this concern is that more than 80 percent of our crude supplies have been coming from the Far East, with British Malaya, the Netherlands Indies, and Ceylon, the chief sources of these supplies. The present war makes it highly uncertain whether much rubber can be obtained from these sources. Appreciable quantities of substitutes are not in prospect. Thus, it seems certain that rubber use will be restricted for some time to purposes concerned most directly with the war effort.

For a considerable number of years, farmers have been using rubber tires on implements and machines which were adapted for field work. At first the most extensive use of rubber tires was on wagons and trailers, constructed mainly from parts of discarded automobiles and trucks. Old automobile tires were commonly used for these purposes. However, industrial tractors have long been equipped with high pressure pneumatic or solid rubber tires, but they did not generally provide adequate traction under field conditions.

In the early 1930's, tire manufacturers developed a low-pressure tire specially adapted for tractor use on farms. Owing to the low purchasing power of farmers, sales of tractors in 1932 and 1933 were at an exceptionally low level, but even in the depression period sales of tractors equipped with rubber tires increased relative to the sale of other tractors, and around 14 percent of the wheel tractors sold in 1935 had rubber tires. In 1940 and 1941 about 95 percent of these tractors had rubber tires (table 3).

TABLE 3.—*Estimated number of specified machines on farms in the United States, Jan. 1, 1942, percent equipped with rubber, and the proportion of new machines sold in the United States in 1940 that were equipped with rubber tires*

Kind of machine	Number on farm Jan. 1, 1942 ¹	Percentage of machines on farms Jan. 1, 1942			Proportion of 1940 sales equipped with rubber tires ²
		Completely equipped with rubber	Partially equipped with rubber	No rubber tires	
	Thousands	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
All tractors.....	1,800	47	7	46	85
Wheel tractors.....	1,700	50	8	42	95
General-purpose tractors.....	1,150	72	10	18	96
Ordinary wheel tractors.....	550	32	5	63	80
Combine harvester-threshers.....	225	57	-----	43	(3)
Grain binders.....	1,350	2	-----	98	(3)
Mowing machines.....	2,210	3	-----	97	(3)
Corn pickers.....	120	6	-----	94	(3)
Manure spreaders.....	1,040	3	-----	97	14
Windrow pick-up baler.....	20	80	-----	20	(3)

¹ Preliminary estimates. Reports of the Bureau of the Census, annual reports of the Department of Commerce, showing domestic sales of farm equipment, and information obtained from crop correspondents February 1941 were utilized in estimating the number and types of machines.

² From reports of the Department of Commerce showing manufacture and sales of farm equipment in 1940.

³ Information not available.

Source: Estimates prepared by Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

If there were no restrictions in the manufacture of farm machines and in the farm use of rubber in 1942, at least 12,000 long tons of rubber would have been used in the production of new farm machines in that year. This does not include any allowance for rubber for manufacturing and equipping new farm automobiles and farm motortrucks in 1942. Rubber replacement needs for farm motor vehicles and farm machines would likely exceed 50,000 long tons in 1942 under conditions of normal rubber supply (table 4). With war restrictions on the manufacture of farm machines and motor vehicles and on the use of crude rubber, farm utilization of crude rubber in 1942 will be reduced greatly.

⁷ Rubber-Tired Equipment on Farms, by A. P. Brodell and R. A. Pike, Bureau of Agricultural Economics and Agricultural Marketing Service, January 1942 (processed).

TABLE 4.—*Total farm rubber needs for new manufactures and for replacement purposes, 1942*

(In long tons)

Item	Rubber needs for		Total rubber needs
	New machines and products	Replacement purposes	
Farm automobiles.....		32,812	32,812.0
Farm motortrucks.....		10,781	10,781.0
Farm tractors.....	8,911.8	4,000	12,911.8
Farm wagons and trailers.....	309.8	1,869	2,178.8
Sprayers and dusters.....	236.0	1,151	1,387.0
Fruit-jar rings.....	1,000.0		1,000.0
Dairy machines.....	149.6	529	678.6
Harvesting machinery.....	307.7	302	609.7
Miscellaneous.....	452.4	498	950.4
Total.....	11,367.3	51,942	63,309.3

Source: Estimates prepared by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

REPAIRS TO EXISTING EQUIPMENT

Among the most important steps taken by the Department of Agriculture and the War Production Board to assure uninterrupted production of food and fiber has been the widespread repair campaign among Agriculture's war boards. In October, the Secretary announced this campaign and warned farmers that immediate steps be taken to put their present equipment in the best possible condition.⁸ Two months later, the Office of Production Management announced a priority rating for repair parts at levels approximating 150 percent of 1940.⁹ These two steps should result in a thriftiness of use far exceeding anything in the past. The benefit of such a program to agriculture transcends the immediate year or years ahead.

Part of the success of the repair program will depend upon an uninterrupted flow of repair parts of all kinds from manufacturers. With the frequent changes in models during recent years and in case of depleted stocks of parts belonging to models no longer manufactured, some obstacles are likely to develop. Such contingencies suggest that it will be necessary to have orders for parts, especially for those to old models, considerably in advance of the time they are needed. Promptness in securing these orders is the keynote of the present campaign.

EFFECTIVE USE OF FARM MACHINERY

Effective use of equipment has always been a primary problem in good management of farm resources: The present need emphasizes its importance on a national level rather than on the individual farm. Present estimates of the adequacy of equipment for the farming job of 1942 indicate that by moderately effective use of existing and newly manufactured machines the job will be done with few exceptions.

Fuller use of existing machines can be secured by cooperative use, the extension of custom work, and by exchanging machine and hand labor.

Custom work.—Increases in custom work are possible, particularly for plowing, combining, threshing, ensilage cutting. Both custom work and cooperative ownership should be helpful in extending the seasonal, and possibly the daily, use of some machines. Custom work might be made more satisfactory if rates for different types of equipment or work were studied by local groups and standards established that would be equitable for both parties. Rates for some machines (particularly for the small combine) which have been in some areas for a very short period are probably somewhat arbitrary because there hasn't been enough local experience on which to base the rates.

Cooperatives.—The experience of the Farm Security Administration indicates that cooperative ownership may be particularly useful among low-income farmers in some areas. There were about 6,400 Farm Security Administration-sponsored cooperative machinery services in operation on December 31, 1940. These 6,400

⁸ Letter to agricultural war boards, October 23, 1941.⁹ Press release P.M.-1950, Office of Production Management, December 28, 1941.

Farm Security Administration machinery cooperatives owned nearly 9,500 different pieces of machinery and equipment. Although tractors, plows, and mowers were among the more important pieces of equipment, a wide variety of machinery such as rakes, combines, ensilage cutters, harrows, cultivators, weeders, ditchers, and seeding equipment were included. It is estimated that more than 74,300 farmers, or an average of about 8 users for each machine, used this machinery in 1940. The experience of the Farm Security cooperatives may be useful to other groups in preparing for the present emergency.

Exchange work.—Good neighborliness in the exchange of work is another means of making the fullest utilization of farm labor and machinery. Hand labor may be exchanged for tractor plowing or combining, and plowing may be exchanged for harvesting, etc. Exchange of work, similar to custom work, gives rise to the problem of rates to use as a basis for exchange work in different areas. How many days' labor should be exchanged for a given amount of work by a small combine or by some other machine? How much plowing should be done for harvesting, etc.? In some areas rates may be based on considerable experience or on careful studies. It is probable in other areas that many rates are rather arbitrary. They may be either unfair to the machine owner or to the farmer offering his labor. Spot surveys may be feasible in some cases to determine satisfactory rates. In other cases local committees can probably suggest fair rates for exchange work.

Fuller use will also result from repair programs that reduce break-downs and lost time to a minimum. In some sections, use will be greater because machines will be used more hours during the day in order to offset the limiting effects of seasonal needs and labor shortages.

In spite of offsetting factors, increased use of machines will be definitely limited by the seasonal needs and the distances over which any one machine can be operated. Extremely favorable weather often will extend the period during which any one job can be done, but unreasonable task assignments, for combines or mowers for example, will often result in a lost crop or one whose value has been depreciated. This limit will be operative on contiguous plots, but will become appreciably greater as the distance between plots is extended.

Finding new or different uses for old machines also offers some possibilities for increasing machine effectiveness. Some types of combines can be used as stationary threshers or with slight changes as peanut pickers. However, the recent trend in manufacture of machinery and equipment has been toward making more adaptable machines, and it would be difficult to suggest any use that has not already been discovered by ingenious farmers and adopted by enterprising manufacturers. Of great importance in the present production job are the recently developed midget combines, small tractors, general-purpose tractors, and the wide variety of adapted equipment manufactured especially for tractor use.

AVAILABILITY OF FARM MACHINERY AND EQUIPMENT

According to the Farm Equipment Institute, farmers would like to buy 38 percent more machinery and equipment in 1942 than they did in 1940. This estimate is based on current and prospective farm incomes and probable needs of farmers in meeting production goals. Purchases at this rate would reflect a vastly increased demand compared with purchases of recent years (table 5).

It is difficult to make such an estimate because in many ways it assumes "normal-condition" purchases entirely unrelated to the Nation's war effort. Actually, the fortunes of soldier, farmer, laborer, and businessman are inextricably tied together. In order to secure the farmer's future right to operate his present holdings, tremendous amounts of material must be diverted to war use. This competition for scarce materials between war and other needs is shown in the accompanying table of metal and rubber utilization in 1940 (table 6).

TABLE 5.—*Estimated farmers' purchases of automobiles, motortrucks, tractors, and other farm machinery, specified years, 1910-40*

Year	Automobiles	Motor-trucks	Tractors	Other farm machinery	Total value	Index numbers, 1910-14=100
	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	<i>Millions of dollars</i>	
1910.....	61	2	6	309	378	89
1915.....	207	14	28	270	519	121
1920.....	301	60	212	594	1,167	273
1925.....	317	66	119	287	789	184
1931.....	134	26	76	163	399	93
1932.....	71	16	32	69	188	44
1933.....	92	26	30	74	222	52
1934.....	230	36	83	122	471	110
1935.....	252	43	153	215	663	155
1936.....	296	55	214	284	849	198
1937.....	264	66	271	375	976	228
1938.....	180	56	201	343	780	182
1939.....	238	72	200	318	828	194
1940 ¹	329	94	242	372	1,037	242

¹ Preliminary.

Source: Estimates made by Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

The importance of agricultural products in the war effort has been recognized by Government officials in their priority ratings of farm machinery. These ratings have been made with the intent of meeting the minimum requirements for new machines in the Food for Freedom campaign. The 1942 proposals as a percentage of 1940 quantities manufactured were all listed in PM-1950 (O. P. M. Press Release, December 28, 1941). Among these were: Horse- or tractor-drawn potato planters, 58 percent; grain binders, 75 percent; rice binders, 100 percent; hay press combines (windrow pick-up), 353 percent; peanut pickers, 208 percent; steel stock tanks, 52 percent; wooden stock tanks, 351 percent; steel stock pens, 50 percent; metal grain bins, 11 percent; silos, 90 percent; horse shoes and horse shoe nails, 90 percent; wooden wheelbarrows, 100 percent; steel (tubular) wheelbarrows, none; sub-soil plows, 50 percent; walking plow type potato diggers, 100 percent; windmill pumps, 100 percent; small incubators, 60 percent; and power dusters, 103 percent.

TABLE 6.—*Consumption of specified materials for all uses and farm machinery, United States, 1940*

Kind of material	Consumption		Percentage that consumption for farm machinery was of all uses
	All uses	Farm machinery ¹	
	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Metals:			
Steel ²	38,500,000	1,269,899	3.3
Cast iron ³	4,006,583	779,674	19.5
Chromium ⁴	502,000	1,354	.3
Nickel ⁵	76,000	435	.6
Molybdenum ⁶	8,500	165	1.9
Cobalt ⁷	600	18	3.0
Zinc ⁸	719,000	15,879	2.2
Copper ⁹	1,070,000	12,127	1.1
Lead ⁹	752,000	4,606	.6
Tin ⁹	83,003	1,539	1.9
Aluminum ⁴	296,000	1,601	.5
Antimony ⁹	29,400	186	.6
Rubber ⁴	641,000	21,397	3.3

¹ Farm Equipment Institute.² American Iron and Steel Institute: Steel is finished steel products (70 percent conversion rate from ingots employed) sold to United States industry, i. e., represents billings, not ultimate consumption.³ Census of Manufactures, 1939: Represents production for sale and interplant transfers of grey iron, semi-steel, and malleable castings.⁴ Materials for Defense, Office for Emergency Management. The Arsenal of Democracy Series.⁵ Bureau of Mines: Apparent consumption of primary metal with no adjustments for stocks plus metal recovered from scrap (1940 new supply).⁶ Office of Production Management estimate: Obtained from the industry and represents estimated consumption by steel manufacturers.⁷ Office of Production Management estimate: Represents the industry's estimate of metal consumption only.⁸ Yearbook of the American Bureau of Metal Statistics, 1940.

These new machines, supplementing those now on farms and being repaired, will be available for the 1942 production season. How well the actual needs will be met depends on the area, the kind of crop grown, and the number of new machines available. The effect of goals on equipment needs for 1942 varies widely. Fewer machines will be needed for wheat, the production of which is perhaps the most highly mechanized, because a reduction of acreage has been requested. On the other hand, milk, soybeans, peanuts, and sugar beets, whose production has depended on less machine labor than wheat, must be increased considerably. These differences have been recognized in the allocation of the priorities cited above. A few additional changes are now being considered because of recent upward revisions in 1942 goals.

STATEMENT BY UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE,
OFFICE OF AGRICULTURAL DEFENSE RELATIONS, PREPARED BY
WILLIAM J. ROGERS

PROBLEMS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN THE WAR EFFORT

The outbreak of war has thrown the problem of farm labor supply into sharp focus. Forces which have been causing a marked change in the supply of persons available for farm work, since the beginning of the defense program, have been intensified. Expanded production of agricultural raw materials and food supplies for our armed forces, for shipment under lease-lend, and for other domestic defense activities was one of the important phases of our defense effort during 1941. Occurrence of this necessary expansion of production simultaneously with increased manpower demands by the armed forces, the aircraft factories, the munitions plants, and civilian consumer goods industries created a number of divergent attractions upon our rural populations.

During 1941, manpower demands increased tremendously in relatively limited areas. Maldistribution of both the agricultural and nonagricultural working force was accentuated. The picture of several men waiting at the gate for every job continued in many localities, while the supply of workers was greatly diminished in others. Some parts of the labor market shifted from a buyers' to a sellers' market. It is in light of this picture that we must today analyze the labor supply picture for 1941. It is in light of a more distinct picture created by declared war that we must look ahead at the labor outlook for 1942. War demands more ships, more guns, more planes, more food, more fibers, more men. The 1942 agricultural production goals call for the greatest farm output in the nation's history. The armament production program set by the President is unparalleled.

REVIEW OF FARM LABOR SITUATION, 1941

An adequate supply and an appropriate distribution of our agricultural workers is the crux of the vital problem of increased production of agricultural commodities. While in 1941 there were some areas of real farm labor shortage, and many areas where the supply of farm laborers was considerably reduced, the farmers of the Nation were able to produce and harvest without significant losses one of the largest crops in the history of American agriculture. At the beginning of our defense program, agricultural producers were operating with a substantially greater number of available workers than were actually necessary to produce their crops. During the depression, agriculture had a great oversupply of workers. Both unemployment and underemployment were prevalent. No doubt, many came to consider this supply as the required supply and considered any reduction in the surplus supply as a shortage, even though enough workers were available, if efficiently utilized, to accomplish the crop operation in question.

The early part of the year was characterized by a great deal of concern among farmers in many sections of the country as to whether or not they would be able to obtain sufficient labor, particularly during the harvest season. Letters and reports that farmers anticipated serious labor shortages reached the Department from many sections. However, as the season progressed, the tone of reports from most areas changed to one of confidence in the ability of the available labor force to harvest the crops during 1941, although in some areas reports continued to anticipate shortages.

Investigations have indicated that in areas where higher wages were paid, where working and housing conditions were improved, where organized efforts were directed toward securing additional supplies of workers, where recruiting and

routing of farm workers were rationalized, and where those employed were more efficiently utilized, anticipated shortages of farm labor in 1941 failed to materialize.

According to reports of the Agricultural Marketing Service, there was practically no drop in the number of hired laborers employed in agriculture between 1940 and 1941, although the number of family workers declined somewhat. This decline from 1940 to 1941 in the number of family workers amounted to about 200,000 to 300,000 during the months of the harvest season, and to less than 200,000 as an average for all 12 months. Agricultural Marketing Service reports also show that wage rates for farm workers increased during the year. For the months of January, April, July, and October in 1941, wages per month without board for the United States as a whole were \$36.61, \$40.44, \$44.95, and \$45.47, respectively, as contrasted to \$35.27, \$36.41, \$37.18, and \$36.84 for the same months in 1940. Wages per day without board for the same 4 months in 1941 were \$1.59, \$1.70, \$1.98, and \$2.08, as contrasted to \$1.55, \$1.55, \$1.62, and \$1.61 a year earlier.

Difficulties caused by a reduction in the number of workers in the farm labor market during the past season fell into three main groups:

1. Local shortages of farm labor, frequently as a result of haphazard hiring practices, increased during 1941, but this is a type of shortage which can occur even in normal years. This difficulty was most intense in areas nearest large-scale war industrial activity. In such States as New York, Connecticut, and New Jersey, difficulty in hiring sufficient farm labor was quite general. On the Eastern Shore of Maryland and Virginia, and in North Carolina, obtaining enough labor for the harvest of certain crops was a genuine problem. In the Pacific Northwest States a surplus of underemployed farm wage workers no longer existed, and the labor force remaining attached to agriculture received a fuller amount of employment than in the past.

2. The fact that opportunities for employment in industry were expanding rapidly and that industrial wages were far above farm wage levels exerted a strong pull on those farm workers who were the more likely candidates for industrial jobs. These were usually the most skilled farm workers, the very ones who have been most stably employed in agriculture. The dairy farm, for example, which employed several year-around men who were familiar with machines and had good job records, lost many men to war industries. When such men left the farm, they were probably replaced by men with poorer qualifications. The difficulty of holding year-around men was felt in many areas throughout the country, particularly near centers of war industry.

3. As a result of the reduction in farm labor supply, harvests were more frequently delayed, work schedules were less flexible and it was more difficult for farmers to adapt to the vagaries of weather. The more perishable the crop and the more its quality suffered from delay in harvesting, the more pressing was this difficulty.

All three of the types of difficulties enumerated above were serious enough to cause legitimate concern. Nevertheless, no crop losses of major significance were reported and authenticated. Small-scale crop losses were reported in some areas, notably along the eastern seaboard, but analysis indicated that some of these were caused by price and weather factors. In some areas production records were set, even though there had been considerable difficulty in obtaining sufficient labor.

The factor of wages was of great importance in determining the amount of farm wage labor available in 1941. The effect of the wide gap between farm and industrial wages upon the farm labor supply has been referred to above. Within agriculture itself there also were wage differentials between regions which aggravated farm labor supply problems in those areas which had failed to keep pace with over-all farm wage adjustments. The effects of both types of differentials could be seen this year, particularly in those States which customarily depend on a migratory labor force for seasonal needs. There was no evidence of a decrease in the volume of migration. If anything, in such areas as California and the Southwest, defense activity had the effect of increasing the movement of various kinds of workers, including those attached to agriculture. But even agricultural workers had hopes of finding work in defense industry. Hence, where low farm wages were offered, migrants tended to keep on the move, while increases in wages offered tended to induce them to stop for work.

As important as the fact that there was increased stringency in the farm labor market during the past year are the indications that shortages were exaggerated in some areas. It must be assumed that some of the exaggerations of shortages were simply honest mistakes which could not be avoided. On the other hand,

some of them may have been deliberate. In a period of diminishing farm labor supply and in light of the high perishability of most farm products, some growers naturally were deeply interested in protecting their future production. Exaggerations of the number of workers needed have the effect of creating artificial surpluses of farm labor in some areas and of creating stringencies in areas from which workers are induced to move. It is very important that the creation of artificial surpluses of farm labor in some areas at the expense of other areas be avoided next year, since at that time it will be necessary to utilize labor supplies with the maximum of efficiency.

ANTICIPATED SITUATION FOR 1942

What can we expect for 1942? A farm labor supply situation much more serious than that in 1941. The forces that have operated to decrease the number of workers available for agriculture will continue and will be intensified during 1942. The supply of agricultural workers is closely related to the general labor supply of the country. Estimates of the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that non-agricultural employment is at record levels. Although sharp curtailment of civilian production will undoubtedly release manpower to meet a substantial part of the future increase in labor force necessary in defense manufacturing, the vast volume of war contracts makes it appear reasonable that labor demands cannot be met entirely by transfer of workers from nondefense to defense employment. The rate of expansion of the armed forces will be greatly stepped up. Undoubtedly additions to the nonagricultural labor force and the armed forces will draw further upon the agricultural population.

During the coming harvest season agriculture may have at its disposal up to a million fewer workers than during the peak labor season in 1941. The exact number will depend largely upon the rate of acceleration in the growth of the armed forces, the extent to which industrial workers are transferred from civilian to war production, and upon how rapidly war industries will absorb additional workers.

This all adds up to the fact that the supply of workers for agriculture will be decreased during 1942. However, the effect that this reduction will have on agricultural production will depend upon the extent to which those who leave the farms come from important production areas and the extent to which positive steps are taken to utilize fully farm workers remaining in the agricultural labor market.

The normal increase in farm employment, for the Nation as a whole, from the low month of January to the peak of the harvest season is in excess of 3,000,000 workers. Usually more than half of this increase is made up of high school students and women. Many of the remaining seasonal workers who are needed for only a month or two during the peak season are unemployed during most of the months of the year. The inherent seasonality of agricultural labor requirements will be likely to present a more serious problem to farmers in 1942 than during past years since the nation can ill afford to waste any manpower. Farmers who employ seasonal labor, even after making every effort to spread their peak labor requirements as much as possible, may have to use more women and high school students than usual and to utilize other potential workers not ordinarily in the labor force, for short periods during the harvest season.

The seriousness of the farm labor supply problem will vary in different sections of the country. The areas where farmers will be confronted with the most serious difficulties include parts of New England, the Middle Atlantic States, and the East North Central States—the highly industrialized sections of the Nation—and many other less extensive areas throughout the country, particularly where new war industries have been established. Farmers in these areas will experience difficulty in obtaining year-around hired men. Harvest labor scarcity will be most acute in sections which specialize in the production of labor-intensive crops such as vegetables. Areas which experienced difficulty in 1941 will be faced with even more acute problems in 1942. Moreover, the number of such problem areas will increase this year.

THE DEPARTMENT'S APPROACH TO THE PROBLEM

In analyzing the situation and in planning an approach to methods for alleviating the problem, the Department of Agriculture realizes that the armed forces must be greatly increased and that agriculture should contribute its share. The Department believes that agriculture can contribute its share without seriously hampering necessary food production if withdrawal of manpower is systematic

and well-planned, and simultaneous steps are taken to replace men drawn from the skilled portions of the agricultural labor force in commercial production areas. It is also realized that farm laborers follow natural human tendencies and will move to what they consider as greater opportunities in industry. Here, too, the Department believes that agriculture can contribute an additional portion of manpower to industry without seriously hampering essential food production, if they are systematically withdrawn from submarginal agricultural areas. If industry recruits workers indiscriminately and employs large numbers from areas of heavy agricultural production, serious difficulties in manning the agricultural plant will develop.

The Department believes that means of alleviating farm labor stringencies during 1942 can be grouped into five broad categories:

1. Securing full utilization of the labor force normally employed in agriculture—operate labor pools, exchange labor, use more family workers. The Department's efforts in this field will for the most part consist of cooperation with and assistance to the United States Employment Service.

2. Retention of workers on farms by increasing the attractiveness of farm work through higher earnings, better housing, more continuous employment, and similar methods.

3. Encouraging the recruiting of workers in surplus farm areas for use in agriculture in areas of labor shortage and for use in war industries.

4. Allocation of as much of the increased production called for in the food for freedom goals as practical to farms and areas where ample supplies of farm labor are available; and encouraging the location of war industries, wherever practicable, in these areas rather than in areas of farm labor shortage.

5. Development of new sources of workers.

Although it has been estimated that production goals for 1942 will require an increase of 102,819,000 man-days of labor over 1939, this does not necessarily mean a proportionate increase in the number of men needed. Many man-days can be absorbed through more efficient utilization of the presently employed agricultural labor forces, by extending the period of operation, by lengthening the effective workweek of some types of workers, by increases of herds or flocks per worker, by increased use of repaired machinery, and by other changes. But it should be remembered that some of these devices are already being employed by many farmers.

Full employment during peak seasons must be provided for farm workers. Organized direction of workers to jobs is necessary so they can be kept busy 5 or 6 days a week. Higher income from full employment will make farm work more attractive. Mobile labor camps greatly facilitate the elimination of unemployment due to frequent transfers between jobs. Further increases in farm wage rates will also be necessary to retain the services of those now on the farms and to secure new workers. Every effort should be made to retain keymen such as skilled dairy workers and machine operators, the group hardest to replace. Better housing should be furnished where this is one of the factors in securing or retaining a supply of workers.

Securing the most effective utilization of total manpower requires careful analysis and planning community by community and area by area. Each community should first see that all local workers normally employed in agriculture are used to the fullest extent before relying on new sources of workers. This is particularly important in view of the potential immobility of labor that may result from a shortage of tires. In past years, many farmers have preferred to use migratory workers. As labor migration may decrease and as the number of migratory workers cannot be accurately estimated, each community must plan to meet its labor problems from local sources so far as possible. These community plans should include analyses of means for recruitment and employment of workers from high schools and colleges, local nonfarm women, older men, and others not normally employed in agriculture. If sufficient migratory workers can be secured or if sufficient workers can be referred from potential surpluses in other areas, it will not then be necessary to depend so greatly upon high-school youth and groups of women. However, advance plans should be made in each locality for the use of these groups, if required. Furthering plans for effectuating these five broad approaches is in general the program of the Department to help meet agricultural labor supply problems in the food-production program.

Development of intelligent plans to alleviate problems of farm labor requires both long-term statistical information and current indications of changes in the supply of and demand for workers, employment, working conditions, wage rates, housing conditions, and similar factors which are important in plans for maxi-

mum utilization of any labor force. Within the Department of Agriculture, the statistical division of the Agricultural Marketing Service has the primary responsibility for gathering such data from farmers and others in the field. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics, as the central analysis and planning agency for the Department, makes analyses on the basis of information gathered by the Agricultural Marketing Service and the Census Bureau and on information from all other available sources. In the farm-labor field, the Farm Security Administration is primarily responsible for the efforts of the Department to improve housing for migratory and other farm workers so as to improve conditions for these workers. The Extension Service, through its affiliated State services and county agents, disseminates information directly to farmers on plans and methods for alleviating farm labor conditions through better farm-management practices, closer cooperation with the United States Employment Service, and other means. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration is in the position of being primarily responsible for promotion of the food-production program of the Department and accordingly has a primary interest in labor supply, one of the more important factors of production.

THE OFFICE OF AGRICULTURAL DEFENSE RELATIONS

The Office of Agricultural Defense Relations was established in the Department of Agriculture by the President on May 5, 1941, to coordinate agricultural operations with other elements of the national defense program. To it was delegated those responsibilities for bringing agricultural activities into proper focus in relation to defense that had formerly been vested in the Division of Agriculture of the National Defense Advisory Commission. With specific reference to agricultural labor, the Office was delegated the responsibility to facilitate the coordination of operations relating to defense farm-labor problems carried on by the various agencies of the Department; to serve as a clearing house to bring into common focus the consideration of farm-labor problems as they relate to the total labor-supply program; to assist the Secretary in the maintenance of effective channels of communication and liaison relationships between the Department and the several agencies of the Office for Emergency Management, the United States Employment Service, the Selective Service System, the Work Projects Administration, the Departments of War and Navy, and other agencies whose programs affect farm-labor supply; and to assist in the planning of farm-labor programs in order to meet defense needs.

Viewed in light of the interests or specific jobs of various bureaus of the Department, one phase of the work of the Office of Agricultural Defense Relations is to bring about a unified approach to farm-labor problems by these agencies and to see to it that their efforts are pointed toward the No. 1 war effort of the Department, namely, to produce adequate amounts of essential food and fiber.

It is also a responsibility of the Office of Agricultural Defense Relations to stimulate and effectuate positive working relationships and rapid channels of communication between the various agencies of the Department and other agencies of Government whose programs affect farm-labor supply. The Office of Agricultural Defense Relations is working with the Employment Service, the Selective Service System, the Work Projects Administration, and other groups in Washington to secure satisfactory policies in regard to farm labor.

Full use and support of the Employment Service by farmers is one of the best means of securing sufficient workers in each locality. The importance of the food for freedom program has been emphasized throughout the entire Employment Service system. The labor exchange facilities of the United States Employment Service, the general labor supply agency for all defense production, are being expanded to include a farm-job specialist in each of its regional, State, and local offices. The placement of farm-job specialists in each United States Employment Service office is viewed by this Department as a positive step toward making possible a greater rationalization of the total farm-labor market. This step should be helpful not only in bringing about more efficient utilization of local labor supplies, and the proper routing and fuller employment of migratory workers, but also in facilitating the movement of unemployed or underemployed farm people from areas of population pressure, usually "low pressure" farming areas, to jobs where they can make a greater contribution to winning the war in war industries and on highly productive farms in need of additional workers. The Department of Agriculture is assisting the United States Employment Service by contributing its extensive and detailed knowledge of crops, acres, livestock and poultry numbers, periods of peak seasonal farm activities, and

related information which assists in indicating farm-labor requirements; of on-farm labor supply; of length of farm work-day; of average farm-wage rates; and of similar information pertinent to planning and effectuating the placement of workers in farm jobs in an efficient manner. Additional temporary employment offices will be maintained by the Employment Service during peak seasons, and provision has been made for an office in each Farm Security migratory-labor camp. Increased emphasis is being given by the Department to the location of Farm Security Administration mobile camps in areas in which lack of adequate housing proved to be a serious handicap in the securing and retention of seasonal workers during 1941.

The Labor Supply Branch of the War Production Board, the Selective Service System, the Work Projects Administration, and other Federal agencies have recognized the war industry aspect of food production and are adjusting their policies and programs to help alleviate the pressing manpower problems which are confronting farmers in the Food for Freedom program. But the job cannot be done by Washington alone. Attainment of food production goals will require the full cooperation of every farmer and farm worker and every person throughout or adjacent to our agricultural areas, who can be considered a potential farm worker. All must realize that the manner in which the policies of the Employment Service, the Selective Service System, or any other agencies in the farm labor field are put into effect will depend principally upon cooperation in each community. Each section of the country will have problems varying with crops, industrial activity in the locality, sources of supply, and other factors. Some sections may have more workers than are needed while other will have a shortage. Changes in farm management practices, exchange of workers between farmers, effective routing of workers from farm to farm and job to job, effective tapping of potential labor reserves within a community or area, and all other similar measures for full utilization of our productive strength call for well-coordinated action and planning within each community by the persons primarily concerned.

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE WAR BOARDS AND FARM LABOR
SUBCOMMITTEES

In carrying out this coordinated action and planning three groups play an important part. United States Department of Agriculture War Boards, which have been formed in all States and in the more than 3,000 agricultural counties in the United States, coordinate action by Department agencies in the farm labor field. The field offices of the United States Employment Service carry on such functions as labor placement, recruiting, and registration. Farm labor subcommittees of the State and county agricultural planning committees study farm-labor conditions and problems and recommend action by appropriate agencies.

The organization for this action and planning is functioning. The expansion of the farm placement facilities of the United States Employment Service has already been mentioned. Last July 5, the Secretary of Agriculture established the State and county United States Department of Agriculture defense boards to coordinate the defense work of the Department in the field. These Boards are comprised of the field representatives of the following Department agencies:

Farm Security Administration, Soil Conservation Service, Farm Credit Administration, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Surplus Marketing Administration, Agricultural Marketing Service, Rural Electrification Administration, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and Extension Service.

Established originally as defense boards, they were renamed United States Department of Agriculture War Boards after Pearl Harbor. Steps were taken to enable the Boards to carry out Department war work more expeditiously. These Boards function as the representatives of the Department of Agriculture in the war effort. The over-all war problems relating to agriculture which come within the sphere of these War Boards include extension of the food and fiber production programs; the handling of problems arising out of war priorities on materials needed in agriculture; shortages, such as those of labor, materials, and machinery; the gathering of specified agricultural information of vital importance to the wartime effort, and cooperation at the State or county level with other war emergency agencies and programs. These Boards are now actively engaged in coordinating and carrying out the Department's war program and are in a position to contribute to an over-all farm labor program.

The Department early in the spring of 1941 moved to establish needed machinery in the farm labor planning field in order that it could be in a position to assist in the alleviation of those problems which could not be met within a specific com-

munity, and in order that it could bring to local farmers information about developments in the policy of various Federal agencies. To supply this planning machinery the Secretary of Agriculture provided for the establishment of farm labor subcommittees of State and county agricultural planning committees.

State subcommittees are made up of farmers and State representatives of the Extension Service, the Farm Security Administration, the Agricultural Marketing Service, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, the United States Employment Service, the Work Projects Administration, and any other State or Federal group whose programs were particularly pertinent to the farm labor problem within any specific State. Similar representation in so far as possible was expected upon similar subcommittees at the county level. To the present, subcommittees have been organized in nearly every State and in more than 1,150 agricultural counties.

The specific task of these subcommittees is to assist in the location of any areas of prospective labor shortages and surpluses, in learning the extent and kinds of labor supply, and in recommending plans for needed corrective action. In addition, these subcommittees, through farm representation and through their close contacts with farmers within their areas, are in an excellent position to inform farm operators and laborers of the various service programs of the Federal Government such as that of the United States Employment Service, whose task it is to bring men and jobs together; the Farm Security Administration, which through stationary and mobile labor camps and other aids can perform a real service to both farm laborers and farm operators; and Conciliation Service of the United States Department of Labor, which stands ready at all times, upon request of either party, to assist in the development of satisfactory employer-employee understandings. These subcommittees also assist the Selective Service System by informing farmer registrants of the principles and procedure of selective service and in some States by supplying selective service officials with information on agricultural conditions within an area.

Neither the State farm labor subcommittees nor the county subcommittees are operating agencies for labor registration, placement, or conciliation. The contribution of these subcommittees is a detailed knowledge of crops, producers, seeding and harvesting dates, areas of excess labor supply, estimates of the amounts and types of additional labor needed and when needed, suggestions for better utilization of the local labor supply, and recommendations and plans for improving the agricultural labor situation. Their further contribution is the stimulation of cooperative working relationships amongst all people within their areas by fully acquainting their members and the public with the problems of transportation, housing, sanitation, health, and the general welfare of farm workers.

The work of the Department in the farm labor field may be outlined by describing in some detail the approach to farm labor supply problems at the local level. The determination of local requirements for outside labor or the availability of surplus local workers is a local matter. Similarly, farm adjustments to promote effective labor utilization essential to attainment of agriculture's 1942 goals must be worked out in light of local conditions. The key to effective over-all planning and action to meet farm labor problems is in the counties and communities. In developing effective plans to meet local farm labor problems, four steps are commonly involved:

1. Farmers and representatives of the Government agencies concerned will have to sit down together and analyze the factors involved in their local situation, and anticipate the types of problems which will arise.

2. On the basis of this analysis, the courses of action which will best handle the anticipated problems must be determined.

3. When the plans have been agreed upon, specific responsibilities must be assumed by farm people or recommended to local representatives of appropriate governmental agencies.

4. A follow-up must be made to see that each responsibility is appropriately fulfilled and that the actions taken by the various agencies are properly coordinated.

The development of effective plans at the State level also involves the four steps listed above. The local solution of all problems which can be acted upon in the counties is necessary to effective planning and action at the State level. Problems which require action beyond the county, such as the movement of seasonal workers into the county or locating of jobs for surplus local workers, are promptly referred for action at the State level.

There is much to be done by all agencies in the field. A total awakening of each community to the fact that we are in the midst of the greatest war in all history and that the best possible distribution and utilization of our manpower is absolutely essential if our effort to attain essential production goals is to be made possible. Our job is to assist in getting labor necessary for farm production and at the same time to work to release all surplus farm workers to the Army or war manufacturing industries. Agriculture is part of the war program. It must be viewed in its proper perspective by both farm and nonfarm groups and agencies if our manpower is to be effectively utilized so that production goals can be attained and final victory can be assured.

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RURAL MANPOWER AND WAR PRODUCTION

Areas of population pressure are areas of potential war workers, workers needed to meet the wartime goals of agricultural and industrial production.

The situation was similar in World War No. 1. With proper guidance, the reservoir of manpower in rural problem areas can make a contribution to the labor needed in the present emergency. When foreign immigration ceased with the outbreak of that war, rural areas supplied many of the workers needed for an expanding industry. The export of considerable numbers of people to cities in all parts of the Nation continued for a decade after the end of that war. The depression of the 1930's brought about a decline in the rate of migration away from farms, but did not alter the rate at which young people were reaching maturity. In addition, there was some migration to farms, especially those in which land for subsistence purposes might be occupied at very little cost. This damming up of population, coupled with the decline of timber resources and of soil fertility, as well as with reductions in the crops which had been the traditional mainstays, made many areas "problems" in the fullest sense of the term.

Relief and public-works programs were stopgaps. The possibilities of rural rehabilitation were limited by the lack of sufficient good land and by the low level of skills of many of the residents. But these areas continued to produce manpower and are still doing so. As full employment is approached, the unused or inefficiently used manpower in these rural problem areas may become an important element in total production.

The ineffectively used manpower is found on farms of very low productivity. For the Nation as a whole, the 1940 census reports show a large number of farms which produced only a small volume of products and contributed only a small part of the total agricultural product in 1939. Two million farms reported a gross value of all products sold, traded, or used of less than \$400; almost 4,000,000 reported products valued at less than \$1,000.

TABLE 1.—*Farms classified by value of products, 1939*

Value of product groups	Number farms (thousands)	Value of product (millions)	Average value per farm	Percent of total	
				Number	Value
\$0 to \$399.....	2,055	\$423	\$206	33.9	5.4
\$400 to \$999.....	1,924	1,245	647	31.8	15.9
\$1,000 to \$1,499.....	709	866	1,222	11.7	11.1
\$1,500 to \$9,999.....	1,311	3,939	3,005	21.6	50.4
\$10,000 and over.....	58	1,341	22,989	1.0	17.2
Total.....	6,057	7,814	1,290	100.0	100.0

Source: United States Census of Agriculture, 1940.

In an analysis of these figures Ellickson and Brewster point out that the first group, that with value of product less than \$400, represents to a large extent families which obtain the major portion of their income from sources other than

agriculture, as well as those in which the farm operator is unable to perform full-time work because of age or physical or other handicaps.

Disregarding these establishments they then examine the possibility of producing the Nation's agricultural products on family size farms. For this purpose they assume that the number of large-scale farms, those with a gross value of product of \$10,000 and over, will remain unchanged and that their share of the total production will remain unchanged. They show then that if all other farms could achieve a level of production equal to the average of those reporting \$1,500 to \$9,999 for 1939 the total volume of production could be achieved on 2,000,000 farms. Thus a reduction of 2,000,000 farms would be possible if these assumptions were met. Obviously, such a change could not occur at once, and some of the farm operators affected by such a program would be needed on the more productive farms as laborers. But the conclusion is inescapable that in 1939, just as in 1929, the farm plant of the Nation included a large number of persons who were on units which did not provide an efficient utilization of the manpower on them and which did not yield the inhabitants an adequate living. Many of them lack the resources, the land, the machinery, the livestock and work stock, the credit, or the skills to take full advantage of improved farm prices. Unless programs to assist these farm families to meet these needs are expanded, many of them can make only a very modest contribution to the food-for-victory program. A nation at war can use a large part of this manpower more effectively than on relatively unproductive farm units.

The inefficiently utilized manpower is concentrated to a large extent in the problem areas in agriculture. Using a number of factors relating to agricultural conditions, some 769 counties, about one-fourth of all counties, were classified as problem counties. They are concentrated chiefly in the Southern and South-eastern States; in 6 of these they constitute the majority of all of the counties of the State and in 3 others a large proportion. In Texas, 65 counties, located chiefly in the southeastern portion of the State, are included.

These are the counties in which the factors making for poverty and distress are not primarily the result of some disaster, such as flood or drought, but are rather the result of long continued trends. In 1937 the census of unemployment found 41 percent of all men in rural farm areas who were unemployed or working on emergency projects in those counties. They are the counties in which the present need for workers may be the stimulus for the development of necessary long-time adjustments, if it is possible to find ways of fitting their manpower into productive enterprises under conditions which will prove attractive to them. This may mean migration out of these areas; it may also mean the development of industrial employment opportunities in or near these areas.

The contribution of these areas to the total agricultural production is relatively small. In 1940 these 769 counties included 39 percent of all the farms and approximately one-third of all the farm people in the country. They had one-third of all farm land and 26 percent of the land in crops in 1939. The contribution they make to the total agricultural production may be shown by reference to some specific products.

The 1940 Census reports that their farms had 15 percent of all cattle, and 20 percent of all hogs. They reported only 8 percent of all milk produced in 1939, 12 percent of the eggs, and 11 percent of the cattle sold. Their contribution to other crops was no greater—they reported 12 percent of the acreage in hay, 25 percent of the total corn acreage, and 13 percent of the corn harvested. Their contribution of fruits and vegetables to the total production of the Nation was very small. But they produced 25 percent of the tobacco and 62 percent of the cotton.

The fact that contribution to total agricultural production is less than their share of the farm population was not a result of adverse factors in 1939. Productivity had long been low, as is shown by the fact that the total value of farm land and buildings represented only 21 percent of that reported for the entire nation. They had never been able to build up their productivity to a point where a program like that of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration was able to render a great deal of assistance. During the years 1936-37 they accounted for only 22 percent of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration payments.

It is true that many of the families carrying on farming in these areas also have the head of the family reporting some other occupation. Approximately one-eighth of the farm operators in these counties reported working 100 days or more off their farms in 1939; this is 31 percent of all farmers in the country who reported so much off the farm work. Altogether they accounted for 23 percent of the total work off the farm. But even with this combination of nonfarm work,

including Work Projects Administration in recent years, they have not been able to reach the levels of income which meet any of the standards of adequacy. Levels of living are low, as levels of income have been low.

In showing these counties are areas from which workers can be recruited for the Nation's social agricultural and industrial production without impairing its agricultural effort. These counties include many highly productive and efficiently managed farms and many farms which require laborers in addition to those in the farmer's family. But on the whole, soil and farm-management experts have long pointed out that the best use of the lands of these areas would require a reduction in the land under cultivation. If desirable alternative opportunities are available, a partial withdrawal of the farm population now in the areas, as well as of the rural nonfarm population there now, would probably be beneficial to those who remained as well as to those leaving.

If the manpower now available in these areas is to be effectively utilized in the more productive agricultural enterprises or in industry, training programs must be developed. In fact, a lack of training and experience has proven a handicap to the young people from these areas in the competition for jobs. This was especially true during the 1930's when the competition for jobs was intense. It is a major element in the holding back of rural young people in rural problem areas.

The meager training facilities available to youth in rural problem areas are apparent from the school statistics. These counties account for approximately one-sixth of all the children enrolled in the public schools of the country, but for only about one-thirtieth of the funds spent for public schools. Many of the children in school do not complete even the basic curriculum of eight grades, let alone high school. Recent studies at the University of North Carolina indicate that for the Southeastern States the average child entering school may expect to drop out before completing the sixth grade, and in many counties the average is considerably less. The proportion of children in the first and second grades of the school system is an indication of the retardation which is common. Tennessee includes 44 of these problem counties and in 30 of them more than 33 percent of the children in the public schools in 1936-37 were in the first and second grades. Similarly, in 50 of the 57 problem counties in Alabama, more than 33 percent of all the children in the public schools were in the first and second grades; but in Arkansas 20 of the 56 problem counties reported so large a proportion (1937-38). These figures apply to the school systems of the entire counties, rural and urban. The extent of retardation in school is undoubtedly higher in the rural than in the urban parts and in the farm than in the village parts of these counties. The figures for some of these counties are affected by the inclusion of Negroes, but many of the counties that have only a small proportion of Negroes reported that more than one-third of all the children in the public schools were in the first and second grades. Under such conditions, completion of the fifth grade represents a high level of achievement, and completion of the eighth grade is exceptional. The figures for the Southeast indicate that of the total of 1,450,000 children who entered school in 1936, 50 percent would get to the fourth grade, 33 percent to the seventh, and barely 16 percent to the eleventh year, which in some places is the last year of high school. Nearly half of the white children but only one-sixth of the Negro children¹ would reach the seventh grade. These figures apply to rural and urban schools; in general, conditions in rural areas are even less favorable. A survey in 1935 found that in the Eastern Cotton Belt nearly half the 16 to 17-year olds in rural white families had not gone beyond the seventh grade, but half the Negroes had completed only a little more than the third grade. In the Appalachian-Ozark area half the 16-17 year olds had barely completed the seventh grade.²

Irregular attendance, poorly equipped schools, inadequately trained teachers, short terms, and curricula having very little relation to the everyday lives of the pupils were factors in the limited schooling. In some of these areas, graduation from the fifth or sixth grade represented an achievement more exceptional than graduation from high school in some of the more prosperous rural areas. The studies of the American Youth Commission have shown abundantly that training of this type is not the kind of training needed to cope with the complexities of modern agriculture or industry.

¹ Proceedings of Agricultural Economics and Rural Sociology Conference of North Carolina State College, Raleigh, N. C. June 23-27, 1911, p. 82.

² Mangus, A. R. *Changing Aspects of Rural Relief*. Res. Mono. XIV. Work Projects Administration Division of Social Research, Washington, D. C. p. 84, 1938.

The schools provide only part of the training which an adult needs in the modern world. But the situation with reference to things normally learned out of school is no better. For many of the children growing up in the rural problem areas the requirements of the complex modern industrial world and the requirements of efficient commercial agriculture are relatively unfamiliar. The farms of these counties reported only 7 percent of the tractors and 13 percent of the automobiles on farms in 1940. And altogether the farms in these counties reported only 11 percent of the farm machinery expense of all farmers in 1939. Obviously, their farm workers have not had occasion to work with modern farm machinery and equipment to any great extent.

It is not an exaggeration to say that they have also had very little opportunity to learn about or put into practice many of the principles of modern scientific agriculture. They have not met them in practice and their educational background has not been sufficient to permit them to take advantage of the numerous publications with which better educated farm people do keep up-to-date.

Moreover, the younger generation of these areas has lived without many of the facilities which large portions of our urban populations take for granted. Only 12 percent of the homes of farm operators in these counties are lighted by electricity; running water in the home is almost entirely absent. Newspapers and magazines which carry news of the modern world to many parts of the country are much less common than in the economically more favored areas.

The lack of formal training and experience is not a measure of lack of intelligence. Given the opportunity, the men and women from these areas could acquire necessary knowledge and skills to fit into the current labor market. Experience has shown that they quickly become efficient workers. During the 1920's these areas supplied a large part of the workers needed in the rapidly expanding automobile industry. More recently the experience of war industry plants which have tapped the labor reserves of some of these areas has indicated that given proper training and supervision the recruits from these areas quickly become competent and efficient workers.

The recruiting of manpower from these rural problem areas to supply the needs of war production would be in accord with the basic trends in farm population, for the farms consistently produce a greater number of young persons than are needed for replacement of their population. During the 1920's the farms of the Nation contributed 6,000,000 persons net to non-farm areas. Many of them were young people who entered manufacturing and clerical occupations. During the previous decade, the contribution was also about 6,000,000 persons, bringing the total for the two decades to 12,000,000 persons. But this contribution meant a decrease of only about 2,000,000; the remainder was accounted for by the excess of births over deaths. During the decade following 1929, the net migration from farms was less than it had been during either of the 2 preceding 10-year periods, amounting to only about 3,500,000 persons. This was approximately equal to the excess of births over deaths, with the result that the number of persons living on farms in 1940 was the same as it had been in 1930. During each of the two previous decades there had actually been a decline.

But although the number of persons living on farms was the same in 1940 as in 1930, there was an increase in the number of persons of working age. An increase in the number of persons over 20 years of age was offset by a decrease in the number under 20. There was a decrease of almost 1,400,000 in the number of persons under 20, but an increase of nearly 1,000,000 in the number of persons of working age (20 to 64) and an increase of 400,000 in the number of persons 65 years old and over. The increase in the working age group amounted to 592,000 for men and 394,000 for women. Available data do not yet indicate to what extent this increase in the number of persons of working age living on farms represents persons directly available for farm work, or persons who are living on farms but working at some nonagricultural occupation. Estimates of farm employment indicate a decrease in the number of hired laborers and the number of family workers in agriculture during the decade. But in 1940 there were also 850,000 persons on farms who were employed on emergency projects or looking for work.

The fact that birth rates in rural areas, and especially in the farm population, have been high in the past is reflected now in the numbers of persons reaching working age, and thus becoming available to the labor force. For the entire country, it is estimated that the population of working age, 20 to 64, will increase by 7,000,000 persons between 1940 and 1950, if there is no net migration from or to foreign countries. Of this total 3,227,000 will be men, virtually all of whom will become available to the labor force. But the rural farm population, which

included less than one-fourth of the population in 1940 will contribute nearly one-half of this total increase in the working age population. Their total is nearly 3,000,000 persons of whom 1,417,000 are men. In other words, between 1940 and 1950 some 3,400,000 young men now living on farms will have reached their twentieth birthday. This is approximately 340,000 per year. They will replace approximately 200,000 losses in the age group 20 to 64 due to death or superannuation. If the present number of persons of working age on farms were to remain constant between 1940 and 1950 there would be available for migration from farms annually 140,000 young men and approximately the same number of young women.

From the standpoint of the young people themselves the situation may be stated that for every 100 vacancies created by death or superannuation some 180 young men are entering the working age group. In the South, generally, the number of farm boys reaching maturity is at least twice as great as the number of older men who die or reach retirement age.

For the rural areas of the South, farm and nonfarm combined, during the 10 years 1940-50 there will be an excess of 3,000,000 men and women reaching working age above those needed for replacement.

But if the working age population in 1940 is not effectively employed in agriculture, and the figures on productivity of many farms show clearly that that is the case, then the numbers above replacement needs represent only a part of the numbers available for nonfarm activities. As a minimum, it would appear that the numbers of persons employed on emergency work, plus those seeking work in the rural farm population would have been available as of April 1940, and that in addition the annual increment of nearly 300,000 young people above replacement needs would be available also. If, in addition, some reorganization of the farm plant could be achieved to make the continuation of the least productive farms unnecessary from the standpoint of agricultural production, the number of workers so released for nonagricultural production might be increased accordingly. A definite figure cannot be given now, since it would require taking into account the seasonal fluctuation of employment in agriculture, which involves both unpaid family labor and hired labor, and the extent of migration since the Census was taken in April 1940.

Former farm workers who had moved to nearby villages before 1940 also constitute a great reservoir of ineffectively utilized manpower. In some predominantly agricultural areas there was a decrease in the farm population, but an increase in the rural nonfarm population. Such a transfer of population, in the absence of the development of new occupational outlets, involved primarily a shifting in the location of unemployed and underemployed workers. For the country as a whole the number of persons of working age on farms increased by nearly 1,000,000, but in the rural nonfarm population the increase was 2,544,000. In rural nonfarm areas the number of persons on emergency work or seeking work in April 1940 was nearly 1,700,000. What part of this population would become available for nonagricultural employment cannot be definitely stated at the present time, but there can be no doubt that this group also represents a reservoir of manpower which can be drawn upon.

The situation in the agricultural problem counties for which data were given above is indicative of the developments which occurred. For the entire group of counties there was virtually no change in the number of people living on farms. But in these same counties the rural population as a whole increased by 766,000 or 5.6 percent. Virtually all of this increase was in the rural nonfarm population which increased about 17 percent, slightly more than the national average for rural nonfarm areas. Part of this increase resulted from the transfer of persons no longer needed in the local agriculture to the nearby villages and small towns. In some States both farm and nonfarm population in these problem counties increased—in Kentucky the farm population of these counties increased by 14 percent and the rural nonfarm population at the same rate; in Tennessee the increase of the rural farm population was 7 percent and that of the rural nonfarm 13 percent; and in New Mexico it was 12 percent for the rural farm and 8.5 percent for rural nonfarm. In North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, where farm population in these problem counties decreased, the increases in the rural nonfarm more than offset these losses and there were increases in the rural population as a whole. In Colorado, Kansas, and Oregon these problem counties experienced losses in both the rural farm and the rural nonfarm population. In the majority of cases in which the rural farm population decreased, the nearby rural nonfarm population increased. Thus a part

of the decline of farm population was simply a shift in residence. The workers involved had not left the county.

Since April 1940, there has been a great deal of migration, as the hearings before this committee have amply demonstrated. Undoubtedly some of the figures based on 1940 census materials are somewhat out of date, just how much so cannot be determined. Estimates made in the Department of Agriculture indicate that there has been a considerable increase in the movement from farms above the levels reported during the depression years. But the evidence which has been accumulating shows that the migration which has occurred has not yet reached very far into the rural problem areas. The evidence from the surveys made by the Work Projects Administration in a number of defense centers indicates that migrations into them had been primarily from urban areas. Most of the rural migrants had come from villages; the proportion coming from the open country was very small. The reports further indicate that few of the migrants traveled far; in most instances the average distance was less than 125 miles.

Another indication of the relatively smaller amount of migration from rural problem areas is found in the experience of the Farm Security Administration. That agency has been keeping records which show the number of borrower families who have left farming for other occupations. These records show that the families in the areas near expanding industries experienced most migration from farms, but that the rates of migration from problem areas were very low.

These findings indicate that the rapid developments of the last year have not completely reversed the trends which were observable before and that the war will not automatically correct many of the problems of low income farm families or the maladjustments of population to resources which have come to the attention of all who are concerned with rural affairs. Indeed there is one immediate and serious problem in the needs for resettlement of farm families displaced through the purchase of lands for war plants, cottonments, artillery or bombing ranges, airports, and similar uses.

If it is correct that the rural problem areas still contain a considerable reservoir of persons who could be made available for agricultural and industrial employment in areas in which they can be more effectively employed—and the forthcoming inventory of the Nation's manpower will provide up-to-the-minute information on this point—then the problem becomes one of recruiting, training, and placement. It becomes a problem of guiding the movement of workers to those areas and occupations in which they can render the greatest service now during the wartime emergency, and of creating conditions which will fully utilize that manpower after the war has been won. To remove farm workers indiscriminately would intensify those local shortages which are a threat to the fulfillment of the part which agriculture must play. The apparent paradox of labor shortages in agriculture and a reservoir of manpower available in agricultural areas can be resolved by dealing not with the farm population as a whole, but with areas individually and by relating the persons living on farms to the job which agriculture needs to do.

A major element in this situation will be vocational training. The vocational training programs which are needed will of necessity deal with a large proportion of persons who have not completed the basic grammar school course; they will need to reach people who do not have ready access to high schools and the facilities for training which they afford; they will need to deal with people who have not had the everyday experience with mechanical equipment which is taken for granted in some farm areas. They will need to deal with individuals who have a deep distrust of schooling as such.

In the need for manpower we have removed from some of the more productive farm areas much of the trained manpower which was available there, because it was also trained in the skills which industry needed. It will be necessary to find and train workers to replace those who have already gone if agricultural production goals are to be met.

The educational process will need to be not only one for the potential workers from rural problem areas. It will need to deal also with the employers who may be unwilling to accept laborers who do not meet the high standards they were able to impose in a time when labor was plentiful. And it will require some education of communities which have discriminated against in-migrants on the basis of race, language, cultural backgrounds, or level of living.

Transferring ineffectively employed workers from farms and rural areas to occupations that will utilize their contribution more fully does not always necessitate the migration to other areas. The location of plants in areas which have reservoirs of available population is an important part of a program in the full

utilization of the manpower of rural areas. No one wants to build places which will become ghost towns after the war. But in many instances the location of a plant near a source of labor supply will mean drawing into employment workers who would be unwilling to undertake a long migration.

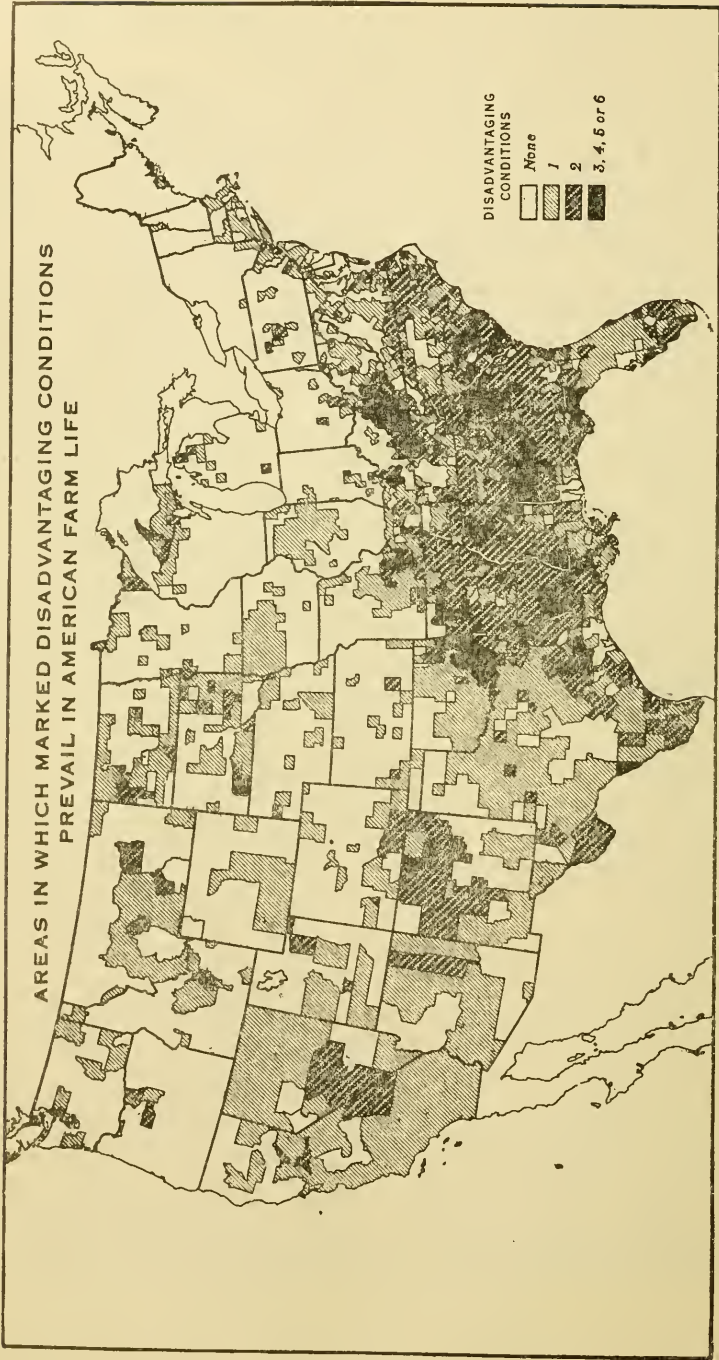
The Department of Agriculture has definitely taken the stand that it will cooperate with the United States Employment Service in meeting the needs for agricultural labor in some areas and the needs of persons in rural problem areas for jobs as well. Working through local committees of farmers and its various action agencies the Department keeps in touch with developments in all parts of the country, and has been in a position to make more effective the work of a number of specialized agencies. Some steps have been taken to guide the movement of workers to the places where their energies are most needed, through the development of camps and housing programs for migratory agricultural workers. Other efforts to stabilize the labor supply of areas which require a large volume of hired labor have been made. Through the local committees of farmers in all parts of the country the hoarding of labor in some areas can be discouraged and the more efficient utilization of the labor which is available can be encouraged. By directing attention to the labor reserved in rural areas, and by cooperating with agencies which are charged with the recruitment and training of workers for nonagricultural activities the Department can contribute to the war effort as a whole. Its primary job is in connection with the production of the food and fibers which are needed now—this can be done in such a way that a large number of persons who are now ineffectively employed in agriculture can be assisted in more efficient utilization of the manpower which they represent. These individuals can be made aware of the alternative opportunities, and can assist in the development of programs to utilize properly the land resources which thus become available.

The absorption of rural persons who are now unemployed or ineffectively employed into gainful employment is an important task now underway. If it is done at adequate wages with a recognition of the cultural backgrounds of the individuals and with provisions for economic and social security it can go far toward improvement of living conditions in depressed rural areas. It is important that at the same time a program to conserve and improve the soil resources of these areas be developed, in order to assure that the adjustments will be lasting, for usually these areas have been depressed when agriculture as a whole was prosperous as well as in times when agriculture as a whole was suffering from depression.

The decade from 1920 to 1930 was one of extensive migrations from farm to nonfarm areas. But this unguided migration did not evacuate rural problem areas on the scale which would have been necessary to bring about the desirable adjustments of resources and population. Such an adjustment did not occur during a period when urban industry was calling for large numbers of rural workers, and it was virtually impossible after 1930. The slowing down of migration away from some of the most depressed rural areas, coupled with a back-to-the-land movement in some places intensified the population maladjustments in rural areas. Poverty, low levels of living, meager educational facilities, and a lack of free contact with the outside world and its opportunities have combined to create conditions which perpetuate the situation.

Migration has ordinarily been based on such information as the individual happened to get, but rarely did he have the opportunity to assure himself that the information was representative, reliable, or adequate. Tips, hunches, rumors, and indefinite promises were often the bases upon which migration was started, and when they proved incorrect there often was a return migration or a further movement to another place concerning which the information was no more definite. The development of an adequate system for disseminating necessary information about employment opportunities among potential migrants would eliminate many of the difficulties now encountered by individuals who go to areas where their services are not needed.

More effective guidance of migrants to areas of greater opportunity is needed if the manpower of the Nation is to be utilized fully in the present emergency. The nation at war cannot afford the wastes of ineffectively utilized manpower, or of indiscriminate migrations which delay the full utilization of its manpower.



STATEMENT BY GEORGE FARRELL, BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL
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TURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

SURVEYS OF LABOR, HOUSING, AND FACILITIES IN AND ADJACENT TO DEFENSE
AREAS

Agriculture's contribution to victory in democracy's war against tyranny and oppression is a story of monumental achievements, attended by far-reaching changes in the everyday lives of farm people. The present all-out production of farm produce for the United Nations constitutes a mighty aid to national victory. Farm people are not only fighting for production, but are also making adjustments to meet many other war requirements of the Nation.

The Department of Agriculture, since the beginning of the national defense program 2 years ago, has been conscious of its primary responsibility to promote achievement of defense and war aims. In keeping with this responsibility, the Department has developed definite lines of cooperation with the War Department, the Navy Department, National Defense Advisory Commission, Office of Production Management, and other war agencies, as part of its work on defense and war problems.

Since early 1940 the Department has been deeply concerned with the changes coming to agriculture and farm people as a result of defense and war activities. The need for planning now to lessen the shock of these changes to the Nation as a whole has been a basic consideration in Department policies and activities. Since Germany's march into Poland, the Department has felt that whenever possible in the light of war requirements, defense and war activities should be planned so as to cause as little disturbance as possible to existing activities, and that all work should be planned with an eye to the readjustments that will have to be made when the war emergency is passed. In addition, the Department has been assisting in the planning of defense industry locations, so that the giant industrial program undertaken as a defense measure will give maximum help after the war in solving the long-time problems of agriculture and the Nation. All of these types of planning activities have been carried forward for more than 2 years in agriculture through the cooperation of the Department, war agencies, the State colleges of agriculture, and county and community agricultural planning committees.

Immediately on perceiving that a very large-scale industrial expansion would be called for in the national defense program, the Department of Agriculture realized that the new industrial plants, if located in areas of surplus population, would help solve many distressing problems in agriculture, and at the same time that such location would guarantee ample supplies of labor for defense plants.

The conditions of modern-aerial warfare and the attendant desirability of avoiding too great concentration of industrial plants in centralized areas accessible to bombing planes contributed to the Department's belief that a large number of these industries might profitably be located in rural and semirural areas. These conclusions were discussed with officials of responsible war agencies and a basic understanding reached.

Excess population is a basic problem in a number of our rural regions, including the Appalachian highlands, large sections of the Cotton Belt, the Lake States cut-over areas, the Great Plains, and the Southwest. These are the poorest agricultural areas in the Nation, the areas of high-birth rates, the areas with most limited land resources, with fewest opportunities for nonfarm employment, and except in the Appalachians and the Great Lakes cut-over, the regions most severely affected by the loss of foreign markets. Problems of income, housing, and education are particularly acute in these areas. In the 1930's, the excess population in these regions had become very severe because of lack of employment opportunities in the cities. Thus in these areas the Nation possesses a giant reservoir of labor. Maximum use of this labor in the war effort is essential to victory.

In the early days of the defense emergency, it was impossible to get the necessary immediate production of war materials by locating new industries in agricultural areas. Many plants, therefore, were placed in established industrial sections, pending arrangements for location of plants in rural areas. Since late 1940 a number of munition plants have been established in the areas of excessive population. These are now contributing greatly to the solution of defense production problems, and to the long-time needs of agriculture. Examples of the type of joint planning for these plants that has been carried on by the War

Department and the Department of Agriculture are given particularly in the case of defense plants constructed at El Dorado, Ark., and South Point, Ohio, within the past few months. The facilities of these plants, necessary in war, also will prove of maximum usefulness to the areas after the war, because of their ability to produce the types of fertilizer most needed in the areas.

The Department has participated actively in scores of local areas in the development of plans and action to solve defense and agricultural problems attendant upon the location of defense industries and military establishments in rural areas. The leadership in this plan has been assumed by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics as the agricultural planning and economic research agency of the Department. Its primary task has been the marshaling of coordinated action of State and Federal agencies in working together with local farmers to supply housing and labor information needed by defense agencies. These workers also have arranged coordinated assistance to dislocated farm families both in moving out of the areas and in finding new locations. The assistance given is discussed in more detail in the following sections.

EXAMPLE NO. 1

Two large defense industries—a powder plant and a bag-loading plant—have been constructed in one Southern State since October 1940, involving use of land in four counties. Thousands of construction workers came into the area in October 1940, when building started. It is estimated that about 9,000 people will be employed regularly in these industries throughout the war period.

In the communities and on farms throughout the area, vast changes have taken place. A flood of money has poured in. Large-scale industrial job opportunities have opened up for rural youth and farm workers. Home markets for eggs, milk, vegetables, and other farm products have become realities. To meet the changed conditions, farmers have made changes in land use, and shifted to new crops to supply the new demands. Numerous adjustments also have been necessary in school facilities, roads, utilities, governmental services, housing, and other aspects of rural community life.

These rural communities overnight have become parts of an industrial center. The total adjustment is a testimonial to human capacity for planning new action and consequent adjustments. Many people and agencies have helped, of course, but it is significant that the farm people took a very large part in this planning, along with Department of Agriculture agencies.

Farmers helped in this planning from the start. In October 1940 the National Defense Advisory Commission asked the Department of Agriculture for help in getting local information of many kinds about the area. This request was handled through the State agricultural planning committee, composed of farm people, and Federal and State agricultural workers.

The Commission needed facts about the housing available for defense workers in the area, the number of new houses that would have to be built, and indications as to where the necessary houses should be situated. The Commission was interested in strengthening and protecting the agricultural communities involved. It also wished to learn how many people in the area would be available for employment in the new industries.

Local farmers went into action. The director of the State extension service and chairman of the State agricultural planning committee, immediately set in motion the agricultural planning machinery. Initial plans for surveys on housing and labor were mapped out by workers in the State extension service, experiment station, and agencies of the Department of Agriculture in a meeting on October 24, and by all members of the State agricultural planning committee on November 4.

As a result, county boards of agriculture were immediately organized in three counties comprising the areas most affected by the defense projects. Subsequently, community agricultural planning committees were formed in 34 communities in the area, including representative farm people from 188 smaller neighborhoods. Membership of the committees included 444 farm men and women as well as representatives of State and Federal agencies. The housing and labor surveys were completed in 4 days, with all workers cooperating.

Farmer members of these groups, assisted by agency personnel, interviewed more than 6,900 farm families. Of this number, 2,636 families were found to be living in houses of insufficient size, or too run-down, or unsatisfactory in other important respects. If such families lived on suitable land accessible to the new plant sites, the owners were queried as to whether they were interested in permit-

ting the Government to construct new houses on their land. If the houses were built, it was explained, they would be for lease to defense workers during the war emergency and for sale to the landowners after the plants close down or curtail operations. Nearly 1,000 eligible farm owners expressed willingness to undertake this kind of arrangement.

The agricultural planning committee's recommendations on housing, as submitted to the National Defense Advisory Commission, suggested construction of about 1,000 houses in the defense area. Suggested sites for these houses, some in the towns and some on farms, were pointed out. The committees held that some of the new houses should be built on farms within 25 miles of the plants, to avoid creation of settlements that might become "ghost towns" after the war. The report also indicated that specified numbers of new houses could be absorbed by certain nearby towns.

In arriving at recommendations for location of new houses in the towns, conferences were held with the town councils and representative citizens. It was explained that 8,000 to 9,000 people would be employed at the powder and bag-loading plants at minimum wages of 57 cents per hour, but that it could not be known how long the plants would operate. In each case, these local groups recommended the number of houses that could readily be absorbed by their communities after the peak of war activities was past.

In the rural areas, the planning committees discussed first of all the special housing inventory, but thereafter took up other problems of rural life arising from the emergency situation. As a result of their discussions, the survey in rural areas became a social survey, and included many questions on rural living conditions as well as on housing and industrial employment.

The industrial employment data collected by the planning committees indicated that a large supply of labor was available on nearby farms for use in the defense plants. On the basis of this information, the planning committees have been working with the United States Employment Service and other agencies in efforts to place these rural people in jobs at the plants.

Acting on the housing recommendations, the Farm Security Administration has built 70 defense houses on farms in the area. Authorization for construction of 200 houses in the area was given the Farm Security Administration by the Federal Works Agency, the remainder of the 200 houses being built in nearby towns.

EXAMPLE NO. 2

Construction of new defense plants in another Southern State was begun in late 1940 on a very large scale. Near one town in the State, 2 huge plants were started—an ordnance plant and a bag-loading plant for powder. Near another town, work began on an ammunition depot, and the adjacent Army camp undertook a substantial construction program. In addition, the Army purchased additional acreage for a firing range and maneuver grounds. At a third town, a new shell-forging plant was started, and a new shell-loading plant was planned in still another locality. The total project area included 11 counties.

A single one of these industries, the powder plant, was scheduled to provide construction jobs to 16,000 workers before the end of the year. Thousands of workers were required by the other plants also. About \$75,000,000 was paid out in a year's time for the construction work alone, and the resultant industries are expected to furnish a new pay roll of about \$1,000,000 per month. When it is realized that the 1940 agricultural income for the entire State was some \$115,000,000, the impact of this war program upon a handful of rural counties can readily be judged.

Faced with many questions about this area and its people, the National Defense Advisory Commission in January 1941 called upon the Department of Agriculture to supply field-survey information. This request, relayed to the State agricultural planning committee and the State extension service, asked data especially on housing and labor-supply problems. The need for this information was conveyed to the county and community agricultural planning committees in the 12 counties of the project area, and the wheels of farmer response began to turn. In all, 1,748 farm people, members of county and community committees, took part in making the surveys by interviewing their neighbors. The field work was completed within a week, and within 2 weeks the needed data were in the hands of the National Defense Advisory Commission.

In addition to obtaining information on housing needs and labor supply, the committees gathered facts on other subjects of concern to the planning committees in their long-time planning operations. This included information as to the

composition of families in the area, color, tenure status, mobility of the people, family participation in community activities, acreage in individual farms, acreage in crops, normal yields, livestock numbers, the extent to which a live-at-home program was followed, condition of the family dwellings, and the presence of home conveniences.

Information was gathered as to educational status of each rural person, and the nonfarm experience of people more than 17 years old.

In cases when the interviewer judged the dwelling on the farm to be inadequate, he formed an opinion as to whether the farm unit was large enough to support a family and whether the farm was located on or near to an all-weather road leading to one of the defense plants. If these requirements were met, the owner of the land was visited and asked whether he would be interested in leasing an acre or two of land to the Government as site for a defense worker's house. It was explained that the new house, if erected, would be occupied by the family of a defense plant worker and that, after the emergency was past, the house would be available for purchase by the landowner. The new house would then replace the present inadequate dwelling.

The rural housing survey covered 24,723 farm families. Of the people interviewed, 16,429 families were found to be living in houses classed as inadequate, and 3,253 of these were on farms that the committees recommended as sites for building new defense houses.

The recommended sites for defense housing on farms in the five counties most immediately affected by the defense activities were distributed county by county. They were also divided according to the proposed occupants—a specified number for colored operators, farm laborers, sharecropper families, and renters, and the rest for owners.

The State representative of the National Park Service informally suggested, through the planning committees, that 50 of the new defense houses might well be built in a nearby national park, to be used by defense workers during the emergency and afterward used for recreational purposes.

Along with the rural housing survey, a companion survey was carried on in the towns and cities of the project area. The towns asked that 1,000 new houses be situated within their limits, and the number to be built in each town was specified.

Through the planning machinery, local housing authorities and town councils in the towns were informed as to legal provision governing construction of defense housing. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics and the State planning commission assisted architects of the local housing authorities in preparing a housing report for each town. A formal resolution was passed by each town council, suggesting a definite number of defense houses, and indicating what the towns could provide in the way of public utilities and community facilities. Accompanying each report was a statement from the local housing authority and a substantiating report from the mayor. These reports also gave facts about local population trends, number of persons employed, sources of employment, and a statement as to how the suggested houses could be absorbed by the towns, through normal growth and deterioration of dwellings, in the period after the plants closed down.

In the labor supply survey, 22,709 farm people—nearly one person for each family interviewed—expressed interest in obtaining nonfarm employment. Of those interested in nonfarm work, 16,455 were male and 5,624 were female.

State and Federal agricultural agencies cooperated in collecting this material. In most instances, an official worker was assigned to work with definite committees in conducting their surveys. The following agencies participated: Bureau of Agricultural Economics, State extension service and experiment station, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Soil Conservation Service, Farm Security Administration, State forest service, United States Forest Service, State planning commission, and teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics. Students from the State College for Women also assisted materially in one county.

The chairman of the State agricultural planning committee, pointed out in the final report that this work was but part of the planning operations contemplated by farmers and agency representatives in the 12 counties of the project area.

Information of these kinds, he explained, is needed as a permanent part of the agricultural planning program in the State, to help the planning committees (a) to develop plans whereby the increased farm income arising from defense work may be used to retire farm debts, improve farm homes and buildings, conserve and improve agricultural resources, and build up the physical fitness of the people; (b) to develop plans to lessen the shock that will come when defense operations are concluded; (c) to develop plans for adjustments needed in production of

fruits, vegetables, livestock, dairy products, and poultry, to meet the increased demand for those within the defense area; (d) to furnish basic data for use of the planning committees in carrying on their long-time job.

EXAMPLE NO. 3

Agricultural planning organizations went into action in a Midwestern State when a new munitions plant, requiring 20,000 acres of land, was authorized in this area late in 1940. Land optioning began almost immediately, much to the concern of the farm people in the area who had only rumor to guide them.

The planning committee in the community most directly affected saw many problems arising, both for the land purchasers and for the people who would be displaced. It called these problems to the attention of the county agricultural planning committee, which referred them to the joint land-grant college Bureau of Agricultural Economics committee. The joint committee arranged, through the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, for the optioning agent and a representative of the Advisory Council for National Defense to meet with the county agricultural planning committee. State representatives of the various agencies of the United States Department of Agriculture also attended the meeting, at which all available facts regarding the project were presented for discussion, including the method of optioning, the method of payment, and the date farms would have to be vacated. At this meeting it was agreed that all farmers living in the project area should have the same information. As a result, the county agricultural planning committee arranged for a mass meeting, which was attended by 1,000 farmers from within and without the area.

Following the mass meeting, a survey of the people in the project area was made to learn (1) the number of people who would require help in moving and relocating, (2) the number of people needing nonfarm employment, and (3) the amount of livestock, crops, and farm equipment that would have to be moved. Other surveys were made to determine available housing facilities in nearby areas for the dislocated farm families, as well as for workers to be employed in the construction and operation of the plant. On the basis of these surveys, it was recommended that several hundred new houses be constructed in order that the 3,000 workers to be brought into the area might be adequately housed. Although no public housing developments have been undertaken to meet this need, a limited amount of construction of housing by private capital in small towns and rural areas near the plant has developed.

The county agricultural planning committee cooperated with the optioning agent in developing a procedure whereby certain items should be considered in determining the price to be paid for the land, in order that tenants, as well as landowners, be compensated for extra losses involved in immediate evacuation. Arrangements were made with the highway commission and other agencies for assistance to the people in their moving operations. The planning committee assisted the farmers in holding several community auction sales for the disposal of personal property that was either too burdensome to move or was unneeded. It also worked out plans for farmers to pasture livestock in nearby areas, pending the location of new farms.

The United States Department of Agriculture and other agencies, upon the basis of information developed by the planning committee, arranged to assist the farm people they were best equipped to aid. These same agencies made extra personnel available to work with the planning committee in doing the job. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics assigned one man full time to act as "headquarters" during the 2-month emergency.

As a result of the initiative taken by the agricultural planning committee in this county, the land was acquired rapidly; prices paid included compensation to some degree for losses incident to almost immediate possession by the War Department; and farm families were given the help they needed when they needed it.

EXAMPLE NO. 4

When the War Department selected 70,000 acres of land in one border State, as the site for a new maneuver area, the 700 farm families living in the area were told they must vacate the land by February 1, 1942.

To insure that none of these families would suffer unreasonable hardships, representatives of 15 Federal, State, and private agencies met on January 12 in the locality, and agreed upon joint arrangements for wide-scale efforts to aid in the evacuation.

Agencies represented at the meeting included the Farm Security Administration, State agricultural extension service, Federal Security Agency, Farm Credit Administration, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Forest Service, Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Soil Conservation Service, United States Employment Service, and a number of others. George E. Farrell, of the Washington office of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, headed up the emergency planning sessions.

Immediately after the conference, the State agricultural extension service carried out a survey to locate farms and homes to which the families could move, temporarily or permanently. The Farm Credit Administration offered to appraise farms which the families were interested in buying. The Farm Security Administration made grants and loans to the neediest families.

The United States Forest Service made a number of houses available to the farmers. The Work Projects Administration offered to build tent platforms if tents should be needed.

A concerted effort was made to obtain at fair prices all types of vehicles needed for the job of moving. The United States Employment Service undertook to find farm work for those who wanted it, and to locate jobs as war workers in nearby cities for those who preferred them. The American Red Cross helped to move the sick and infirm people from the area.

In addition, these agencies and several more set up an office in a nearby town to work with the War Department on all phases of the problems, and to keep themselves informed as to new conditions as they arose.

EXAMPLE NO. 5

Assistance for 150 families having to vacate land selected by the War Department for the location of a munitions plant in the Appalachian region is being given by various public agencies and local farm people working together through a county agricultural planning committee.

Establishment of a county agricultural planning committee in the county involved followed the announcement by the War Department that the site was soon to be acquired for a munitions plant.

The planning committee secured definite commitments as to the type of help each agency will give the dislocated families so that none will suffer unreasonable hardships in finding new farms and homes, arranging for storage of equipment and supplies and care of livestock if needed, locating jobs in agriculture or industry, and meeting the actual moving expenses.

Planning activities in the county began on December 30, 1941, when the State representative for the Bureau of Agricultural Economics received a telegram stating that the proposed site had been approved.

A week later a general agricultural planning meeting was called, attended by 31 people including leading farm men and women, and representatives of 12 different groups concerned with agriculture in the county. At this meeting, it was decided that the county agricultural planning committee should be organized on a permanent basis. A farmer and president of the county farm bureau was elected chairman. He designated the county home demonstration agent to act as secretary. One representative of each agency interested in the welfare of agriculture in the State was nominated to serve on the executive committee along with the chairman and secretary.

To date the following things have been done:

Every farm family now living on the proposed site has been interviewed by local agricultural workers. As a result, it was found that 30 families wanted help in locating a farm; 24 wanted help in finding a nonfarm home. Thirty-four families had made plans for a place to move, and 66 had found no place to move. Some 42 families said they needed no help.

On the basis of this type of information, each of the families requesting help was assigned to that agency or agencies best able to give aid. Agencies undertaking to help the displaced families include the Farm Security Administration, the Federal land bank, the Soil Conservation Service, the Department of Public Assistance, the Extension Service and the Employment Service. In turn, the Employment Service classified those it will help according to whether they want farm or nonfarm employment, or whether they are willing to take either type of work.

A list has been filed in the county agent's office of farms and residences in the area for sale or rent. This information has been obtained through real estate agents, agricultural planning committees in adjoining counties, and other avail-

able sources. It includes facts and figures on the assessed value, condition, and reason for selling of listed farms and nonfarm homes. Every effort is being made to insure that the asking price of the farms and homes to which the families are referred is reasonable.

Working through five subcommittees formed at its second meeting, the county agricultural planning committee is now putting full steam behind continued efforts to help the dislocated families.

The five subcommittees and their activities are as follows:

The farm and residence listing subcommittee locates, lists, and makes known to the displaced families all farms and homes as they become available for rent or sale in the area.

The central information clearance subcommittee spreads authoritative information among the families in the area as to the probable date of evacuation, the acquisition procedure, and provisions for compensation.

The labor subcommittee is doing all it can to find farm work for those who want it, and to locate jobs in the new plant for those who prefer to go into industry.

The agricultural defense subcommittee works closely with the county United States Department of Agriculture war board in helping farmers to achieve the war production goals set by the United States Department of Agriculture.

The housing and public-service subcommittee is undertaking to arrange for temporary storage of machinery and feed and temporary care of livestock for the displaced families. It will locate housing facilities for workers moving into the area to work in the proposed plant. It is also studying the effects of the location of the plant upon schools, roads, water and food supplies, and sewage facilities, with an eye to planning for needed adjustments.

EXAMPLE NO. 6

A large tract of land in one Midwestern State was marked for purchase by the War Department in the fall of 1940, for use as a training camp. The War Department announced in late November that immediate possession must be taken of 7 sections of land in the area, so construction of camp facilities could begin promptly. Title to all land in the purchase area had to be taken before March 1, 1941. It was necessary for the 35 families living on the 7 sections to move out immediately. In all, more than 300 families in the area had to move out.

War Department officials, recognizing the complexity of relocation problems conferred with representatives of the United States Forest Service at the national forest adjoining the defense-project area, on procedures to be used in acquiring the necessary land. Subsequent conferences were held by representatives of the War Department, the United States Forest Service, State extension service, Farm Security Administration, and Bureau of Agricultural Economics. From these came a joint decision that a survey should be made, to find out what public assistance would be needed by the dislocated families, and to assign specific cases to the appropriate agencies.

Six professional agricultural workers were sent into the area at once, to confer with farm people. A meeting of all farmers living in the 7-section area was called a few nights later by the local agricultural planning committee, the Extension Service, and the Forest Service, to discuss in detail the acquisition policies that would be followed, and the problems that would be encountered by the dislocated families. Similar meetings, it was decided, would be held throughout the camp area before option taking began, so the people would have a clear idea of necessary procedures. Meetings were immediately held in three communities.

Farm people on the local agricultural planning committees, along with Federal and State agency representatives, participated in making a social survey, beginning November 27. Within a week, 114 schedules had been taken. Facts disclosed by these schedules resulted in assignment of 4 cases to Social Security; 13 to Farm Security Administration; 6 to Extension Service; 1 was referred to the Production Credit Association; 2 were unclassified. Fourteen families were listed for job preference in the camp construction. Schedules later were obtained from 177 additional families.

To find farms to which the dislocated farmers could go, planning committees surveyed farms in the county and compiled a list of farms that were for sale or rent. Representatives of the Federal land bank and the Farm Security Administration also made up lists of available farms. The Forest Service indicated that people eligible for old-age assistance, of which the survey revealed more than 60, would be permitted to build cabins on some of the Forest Service property if these people were unable to find a place of their own.

Final results of the survey showed that 7 families in the camp-construction area would need no assistance; 1 family would need credit for livestock and equipment, probably from Farm Security Administration; 8 would require credit to purchase a farm, of whom 6 were in relatively good shape except for severe need of immediate cash; 33 needed help in finding other places to live, 18 of these wishing to get other farms and 15 wanting nonfarm residences; 12 families wanted non-farm work, with indications that 19 families should seek this kind of work; 28 families needed either a loan or a grant to enable them to move, 13 of whom could offer security for a loan (3 were Social Security clients and the rest were referred to the Farm Security Administration); 4 families indicated they would need help in maintaining themselves after moving, and were referred to Farm Security Administration.

There was 1 Farm Security Administration client in the area, needing little additional help except in finding a suitable farm; 8 families that were potential Farm Security Administration clients; 13 families who had enough security to justify a loan to meet moving expenses or purchase of a new farm, or both; 10 families, some of whom seemed likely to need a Farm Security Administration grant in order to relocate.

This survey provided a basis for concerted public assistance of dislocated farm families in the area, and for guidance of employment policies followed by the United States Employment Service in referring workers to jobs on the construction projects.

EXAMPLE NO. 7

Approximately 122 farm families lived in the area of about 7,000 acres acquired by the War Department as an ordnance area, in 1 county of a Middle Western State. Of these, only 6 were tenants, and 4 of them owned part of the land they operated. There were no Farm Security Administration clients in the area.

A meeting was held on January 7, 1941, to lay plans for the rapid acquisition of the area. Those attending included the War Department's purchasing agent, and local representatives of State and Federal agencies. The part that various agricultural agencies might take in helping these families to relocate was discussed, and each agency agreed to do its part toward assisting in the relocation.

Following this meeting, the county agent called a meeting of the county agricultural planning committee, and another meeting of the families living within the purchase area. Representatives of all agricultural agencies and organized farm groups served on the committee, as well as a farmer from each township or community. Two of the farmer representatives lived in the proposed purchase area, and 1 of them had been active in organizing protest meetings relative to the purchase of the area. The mass meeting was attended by 250 to 300 people representing nearly every affected family.

At both meetings, the reasons for the acquisition of the land were explained, and the need for speed was stressed. The aid each agricultural agency could render was also explained to the people, and it was pointed out that all agencies would serve in every way possible under the guidance of the planning committee. No further protest meetings were held, nor was there any organized resistance to the purchase after this meeting.

Next step was to call a meeting with the civic and business leaders of the nearest city. The effects of the proposed plant—and of more than 1,000 workers to be employed there—upon housing, traffic regulation, and public services were discussed.

Still another meeting was held with the people from surrounding counties who might be in a position to help the displaced families find new farms and homes. All county agents, Farm Security Administration supervisors, and county agricultural conservation program chairmen from nearby counties were invited. Each county agent was asked to bring two or three leading farmers, preferably members of the local agricultural planning committees. All real-estate brokers in these counties were asked to attend the meeting, at which they were urged to make a combined listing of available farms, this list to be made available to all people in the purchase area. Effort was made to induce the real-estate brokers not to inflate prices.

At a meeting of January 22 the county agricultural planning committee then agreed to do the following:

- (1) Set up a central clearing office of information in the county agent's office. Here they proposed to keep listings of farms for sale and rent in this and surrounding counties. At the time of the meeting, 60,000 acres of available land had been brought to the attention of the committee. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics provided clerical and stenographic help for the office.

(2) Request the Extension Service and other agricultural agencies to maintain personnel at the office to discuss relocation problems with the farmers.

(3) Send a letter to each of the 122 families within the ordnance area offering the services of the committee and calling attention to the office of information.

(4) Visit each family immediately after optioning to determine if any help was desired and, if so, the nature of the help needed. A form was prepared for the use of the committees in visiting the families. If the family had completed its relocation plans, it was merely asked to list the location of the new farm and the name of the family now occupying that farm. In this way, the planning committee kept track of secondary movements, and passed the information on to the agricultural agencies in the counties affected by the secondary relocations. If the family had not completed its plans, it was advised to call at the central office of information. There a second form was filled out, giving in some detail the nature of the family's problems, so that the family might be referred to the proper agency for help.

As a result of these and other activities of the planning committee, much help was given the dislocated families in locating dwellings to which they could move; arranging temporary housing for their livestock and machinery; and relieving the hardships they faced as a result of the acquisition of their farms.

EXAMPLE NO. 8

Announcement of the War Department's projected purchase of 60,000 acres of land in three counties of another Midwestern State was made December 6, 1940. This land, needed for a new ordnance proving ground, was occupied by 600 families.

Farmers and representatives of Department of Agriculture and State agencies, through local agricultural planning committees, worked together to insure rapid and equitable purchase of the land, and to help relocate the displaced farm families.

A joint meeting of agency personnel and the chairmen of county and township agricultural planning committees in the three counties was held immediately after the War Department's announcement of intention to purchase the land. Through the planning committees, direct contact was established with all families living in the area, to forestall the growth of confusion and misinformation in the area. By community meetings and personal interview, the problems facing each family were discussed fully, necessary procedures were explained, rights of tenants and owners were aired, and the importance of cooperating in the defense undertaking was emphasized.

The tricity group conferred with the purchasing agent in developing policies of procedure and in explaining factors to be considered in arriving at fair compensation for owners and tenants, including compensation for land, improvements, crops, and disturbance costs. The committee established an information office in each county, to give information, advice, and aid to the families in moving out and in finding new farms. The committee surveyed adjoining townships and counties to learn of farms for rent or for sale, to locate emergency housing facilities for livestock, and to locate places that could be used for storing machinery and feed, pending the farmers' selection of new farms. All such information was made available to the displaced families.

Planning committee workers obtained detailed information on each of the displaced families, to learn what each family would need in the way of assistance. A list of 150 suitable farms for sale or rent was compiled and mimeographed for use of the farm people. This list helped many farmers in relocating.

From the information obtained from the families, Federal and State agencies in the area were able to learn what families each agency could properly assist in making adjustments. The Farm Security Administration took care of its clients and many others with loans, grants, and supervisory help in locating suitable farms and moving out. Local banks cooperated in many instances, making loans upon the security of the options. The Agricultural Adjustment Administration provided data on land productivity and suitability for agriculture of the farms that were for rent or sale. Public welfare agencies cooperated by assuming responsibility for several families. County agricultural agents advised the families individually and in groups, and work to keep the people informed of procedures. The Bureau of Agricultural Economics' representative served as liaison man between the purchasing agent, Federal and State agencies, and the local planning groups.

Other vital local problems are now being considered by the planning committees, principally those of relocation of roads and electric lines, and readjustments of public services in the three counties.

EXAMPLE NO. 9

Construction of two new munitions plants—a powder plant and a bag-loading plant—was begun in one locality in late 1940. About 3,500 acres of land had to be purchased for the sites, and it was believed that about 11,000 men and women would be given employment.

The agricultural planning committees of the two counties most directly affected assembled detailed information on defense housing needs within the territory surrounding the new plants, and made recommendations as to desirable policies for location of new housing facilities. These recommendations were made on request of the Defense Housing Coordinator, through the Department of Agriculture and the land-grant college.

On receipt of this request, the planning committees of the two counties held a joint meeting and discussed plans for the survey. Meetings of township planning groups were then called in the separate townships, after which the housing survey was made, township by township.

Recommendations resulting from this survey included (1) that authorization be given to lease and purchase land in rural areas in order that the following types of houses might be constructed:

On leased land:

1. Replacement houses on farms that can be bought by the lessor after the war to replace an existing substandard unit.

2. Supplemental houses on farms that can be bought by the lessor after the war, to provide improved housing for tenants, hired men, or for a son and his wife who have been living at home under crowded conditions.

On purchased land:

1. Houses upon plots of land from 3 to 10 acres in size, to be sold after the war to part-time farmers.

2. Rural residences on small plots, to be sold later to industrial workers who prefer to live in the country.

The committee recommended that definite agreements be worked out whereby the landowner may lease land to the Government on which new houses can be built, such houses to be sold to the farmers after the war. It asked that initial authorization be given for erection of 100 defense houses in rural areas, with priority given to replacement and supplemental houses on farms, and further suggested that this work be done through the Farm Security Administration. The committee report also asked that, in any allotment of houses to urban areas, serious consideration should be given to specified towns and cities.

EXAMPLE NO. 10

Construction of an ordnance plant near a midwestern town, calling for use of 21,000 acres of land, was begun in late 1940. This plant is expected to employ about 8,000 workers for the duration of the war, and about 1,500 after the war. A total of 245 families were required to move from farms in the project area.

The Department of Agriculture, at request of the Housing Coordinator and the National Defense Advisory Commission, asked the State agricultural planning committee to cooperate in making a study of defense housing requirements and of the labor supply that would be available from farms to work in the plant. The study was made by local people on township committees composed of township trustees, school boards, and the township agricultural planning committees in two counties, assisted by State and Federal agricultural workers.

The study made dealt with the possibilities for housing defense workers in rural areas, from the viewpoint of (1) possible use of these houses for later replacement of existing substandard houses on farms; (2) use of subsistence plots for later part-time farming work; and (3) erection of houses on tracts where there is need for additional housing, or where there is no housing available. The survey covered all townships of one county and three townships of another county. Local school principals tabulated the information obtained.

On completion of the survey, a general meeting for the people of the two counties was held March 5, and final recommendations of the committees were developed and turned over to the Department of Agriculture.

EXAMPLE NO. 11

Soon after the War Department announced that a bomb loading plant was to be constructed in a midwestern State, the county agricultural planning committee met to work out a program for helping the farm families then living on the pro-

posed tract. Letters signed by the chairman of the county planning committee were promptly sent to the farmers in the area, telling them that a representative of the committee would call in a few days. Through personal interviews, a survey was then conducted to determine the needs of each family in the area.

Results of the survey indicated that of the 111 families living in the area, 15 planned to quit farming when they moved, and 96 would like to find other farms. Of this number, 17 families asked for financial help; 65 needed only supervisory help and information as to available farms; and the rest were able to take care of themselves with no outside help. The county agricultural planning committee sent letters to all county agents in nearby counties asking each agent to report any farms for lease or sale in his county. A list of available farms was then compiled, and the planning committee is now taking further action to help the displaced families to move.

EXAMPLE NO. 12

Soon after the Navy Department announced that it contemplated the establishment of a naval ammunition depot in the vicinity of a midwestern city, the local agricultural planning committee submitted recommendations that the proposed boundary lines should be extended in order to avoid certain difficulties. Specifically, it was suggested that:

(1) The southeastern corner of the boundary should be extended by about 100 additional acres. It was pointed out that this area is all that is left in that part of the local governmental unit known as Brown Township. It would be much easier to buy this land, according to recommendation, than to go through the legal process of having it consolidated with another township.

(2) The northern boundary of the purchase area should be extended by about 20 tracts. The people living in this area, according to the planning committees, would have no outlet for schools or roads or other public facilities. They would be left in a forgotten world as far as services in future years are concerned.

These suggestions were called to the attention of officials of the Navy Department by the Washington office of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

EXAMPLE NO. 13

A midwestern village consisting of about six houses and a general store was chosen by the War Department as the site for a new shell loading plant. The proposed plant was scheduled to occupy a 40,000-acre tract, and the operating force of the completed plant was to number about 6,000. According to the State representative of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, it was estimated that about 20 to 25 percent of the rural houses within a radius of 25 miles of the village were substandard.

Meetings were held between Washington and State representatives of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics to discuss the possibility of developing a housing program in the vicinity in such a way as to improve rural housing, and possibly form a basis for a part-time farming community when peace comes.

EXAMPLE NO. 14

In the case of the 73 families once living in an eastern area taken over as a proving ground expansion project, technicians of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics contacted each family directly, jotting down information as to the specific help required. On the basis of these data, each agency undertook responsibility for aiding those families which it was in a position to help most effectively. Result: within 2 months, all 73 families had left the area and nearly all had re-located on farms or found other jobs.

EXAMPLE NO. 15

In one western county, the agricultural planning committee developed plans for the organization of a farmers' cooperative to supply fresh, locally grown farm products to the nearby Army camp. The committee started work on this project in January 1941, and by June a building had been built and was being used for conducting the co-op's business. The planning committees in a southern county and in several northeastern counties have been active in developing similar programs.

EXAMPLE NO. 16

A National Guard camp in a county in a northeastern State was to be enlarged considerably after being taken over by the Army. It was feared that an area of good agricultural land might be included in the enlarged camp site. Accordingly, the local agricultural planning committee furnished data on types of land in the county to Army officials, which enabled the Army to acquire land less suited to agricultural production.

In still other areas where war industries and military training centers have been located, county and community agricultural planning committees have moved rapidly in getting information and developing plans to assist army officials in the acquisition of suitable sites, in guiding the relocation of displaced rural facilities, in making inventories of available labor and opportunities for employment, in planning the location of needed housing, in preventing the over-burdening of public services and facilities, and in numerous other ways cushioning the impacts upon rural communities of the establishment of military facilities. Additional examples might be cited in connection with 10 Army cantonments and proving grounds—one in the Northeast, seven in the South, one in the Midwest and one in the Northwest. Still other examples of planning in action are on record with regard to 11 plant sites and ammunition depots, of which three are in the Northeast, six in the Midwest, and two in the South.

TESTIMONY OF PANEL FROM UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Dr. LAMB. I will direct these first questions to Mr. Rogers. I seem to have quite a batch of questions here for you, Mr. Rogers. I will ask Mr. Smith especially to join in replying to these at the points where he wants either to supplement your remarks or where you want to pass the ball to him.

Is the committee correct in understanding that unpaid family workers and persons on the smaller, less efficient farms, account for most of the recent reductions in farm labor?

Mr. ROGERS. I think the figures we have in the Department do indicate that a great part of the reduction has come from the group classed as family labor. Taking the average from one year to the next, that has been generally the case. There have been, of course, some differences in various regions.

Dr. LAMB. In its hearings last spring the committee was confronted with reports on various impending farm labor shortages. How have these expectations worked out?

Mr. ROGERS. Generally, in the early part of the year, the reports we got in indicated there were a great many shortages anticipated. While in limited localities, probably actual shortages did occur, generally, as the season developed, most of the shortages failed to materialize, at least in the degree that was expected. This was true when there were some direct or organized methods to recruit, or higher wages came in to alleviate such conditions.

The CHAIRMAN. The thought occurred to me, and I was wondering whether this new registration, 18 to 64 years, would be valuable data as to the Farm Placement Service regarding workmen.

PREPARATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE

Mr. ROGERS. We hope so. They have a questionnaire which is about ready now, I think. In the preparation of it, if I understand correctly, the Selective Service was assisted by the Employment

Service and several other agencies which are interested in the information. The material to be collected by both Selective Service and Employment Service is directed, I understand, to get as much information about farm jobs and people on the farm as about the industrial groups. So that should be just as valuable to us in agriculture as in any other groups.

The CHAIRMAN. You will have access to it, will you?

Mr. ROGERS. I presume so. Of course, the Employment Service will, and a part of the information on that questionnaire, as I understand it, will be turned over to the Employment Service by Selective Service.

Dr. LAMB. Mr. Rogers, do you think that the food for victory campaign will fail to reach stated goals because of farm-labor shortages?

Mr. ROGERS. Dr. Lamb, that is anticipating or looking into the future. Of course, there are a good many opinions on that question.

If the labor that we have available is properly recruited and we were able to distribute it properly, perhaps getting some shifted from these areas where there are relative surpluses of workers to those areas where there are not quite so many, then we should not have any difficulty in supplying sufficient farm labor. But it will mean that you will have to have an intelligent and rational use of the labor on hand.

Dr. LAMB. Including some orderly shifting about?

Mr. ROGERS. Yes, sir.

Dr. LAMB. Since the Department of Agriculture considers itself responsible for food production in the victory campaign, do you consider it primarily responsible for providing an adequate labor supply to agriculture?

RESPONSIBILITY FOR SUPPLY OF FARM LABOR

Mr. ROGERS. No. The provision of an adequate labor supply we feel is a responsibility of the Employment Service, as it is responsible for labor supply to any other industry.

There is a strong tendency, of course, on the part of the farmers, to look to the Department of Agriculture to see that something is going to be done to assure them an adequate supply.

Dr. LAMB. What are the respective functions of the land use planning committees and agricultural war boards, in the matter of providing adequate farm labor? I would like to say that, of course, we have in your prepared statement, certain statements relating to these questions, which were prepared before the statements came in. In such case, we would like to have you amplify any statements which you have made in your replies to these questions.

Mr. ROGERS. I think the statement that was given covers the situation fairly accurately up to the present time.

I think the question should be looked at in this light: That for some years we have had agricultural planning committees and about a year ago the organization of the farm labor subcommittees was started. Their purpose is to work with the Employment Service, to give that Service, in local offices and at the State level, the advantage of what technical information our people have, to try to interpret the Employ-

ment Service to the farmers and to try to interpret the farmers' need to Employment Service.

In July, I believe, the Secretary set up the defense boards to coordinate the Department's activities in the field in relation to war effort. Then, around the first of the year those were renamed war boards. The war boards do have the responsibility for coordinating all of the Department of Agriculture activities in relation to war effort.

WAR BOARDS

Dr. LAMB. Would you describe the war boards, how many they are, and where they are located, and so on?

Mr. ROGERS. There is a U. S. D. A. War Board in every agricultural county in each State. The War Board is made up of representatives of departmental agencies and Extension Service.

In most cases in the county you have Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Farm Security Administration, and Extension Service.

At the State level there are several other agencies included. You would have the Bureau of Agricultural Economics and Agricultural Marketing Service, Soil Conservation, Farm Security Administration, and others.

Dr. LAMB. What about the land-use planning committees? Are they also in every agricultural county?

Mr. ROGERS. Not in every one. They are set up in large numbers, but they are not in every single county in the country.

Dr. LAMB. What about their membership; would it be the same?

Mr. ROGERS. The membership of the agricultural planning committees includes, in addition to departmental agencies, a group of farmers. Then, I think the next question is as to the farm labor subcommittees. They include a membership of departmental representatives, plus a group of farmers, the Employment Service, W. P. A. and quite frequently other groups that might be interested in the farm-labor problem.

Dr. LAMB. Do I understand that the war boards do not have farmers on them?

Mr. ROGERS. The war boards do not. They have only employees of the Department and the Extension Service.

Mr. MADDOX. May I interrupt? The representative of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration in the county is ordinarily a farmer, is he not?

Mr. ROGERS. To some extent.

Dr. LAMB. Who would be the chairman of the Agricultural War Board?

Mr. ROGERS. The representative of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration.

Dr. LAMB. What about the chairman of the Land Use Planning Committee?

Mr. ROGERS. In most cases the Extension Service Director.

Mr. SMITH. That is the Chairman of the State planning committee.

Mr. TAEUBER. But a farmer is the chairman of the county committee.

Dr. LAMB. And a farmer would be chairman of the county U. S. D. A. War Board. That is to say, he would be the A. A. A. committee chairman?

Mr. ROGERS. That is right.

AGENCIES RESPONSIBLE FOR FARM LABOR

Mr. BLACK. May I ask a question of Mr. Rogers? He has very specifically stated that the responsibility of the War Board is the coordination of the efforts of the United States Department of Agriculture agencies. Earlier you asked him a question which led him to state that it was the responsibility of the United States Employment Service and its local labor market representatives to see to it that the farmers were supplied with labor, insofar as possible.

Now, those statements are very specific and I wonder if I get the full import of them. Does he really mean then that the war boards are not responsible for coordinating the efforts of the local employment service?

Mr. ROGERS. I don't know that I understand exactly what you mean, Mr. Black.

Mr. BLACK. You are using this word "responsibility" pretty loosely, it seems to me, and I want to know just what you mean by it.

Mr. ROGERS. First of all, it is my understanding that the official employment exchange agency of the Government is the United States Employment Service. That extends to all industries and extends to agriculture the same as it would to manufacturing or shipbuilding or anything else. We recognize it as such and are doing everything we can to help them out in the agricultural field. Now, then, the war boards would coordinate the activities of the Department of Agriculture agencies, and would be responsible in any program we had to see that they tied up with employment service. I don't think that, beyond the cooperative stage, our war boards or anybody else in the Department of Agriculture would be able to go further with the employment service than the employment service wanted to go, if that is what you mean.

Mr. BLACK. There are two independent responsibilities here. Are these responsibilities interlocked or interrelated?

Dr. LAMB. May I interrupt to ask a question? Who would find that there was a shortage of labor in that county?

Mr. ROGERS. The United States Employment Service.

Dr. LAMB. What would the role of the War Board be in that connection, or the role of the subcommittee of the Land Use Planning?

Mr. ROGERS. I think the role of the committee would be that of pointing out that they had better look at this area over here.

Dr. LAMB. Would that be done both by the War Board and the labor subcommittee?

Mr. ROGERS. That would be done ordinarily by the labor subcommittee. If the labor subcommittee was not doing something about it and the War Board itself thought something should be done, they have the subcommittee there to call on.

Dr. LAMB. Let us suppose the local labor subcommittee makes a finding that there is no shortage and the War Board says there is. Then what happens?

Mr. ROGERS. I don't think we have had that case arise yet.

Dr. LAMB. I think I can think of a few counties where it might.

Mr. ROGERS. That is quite possible. That particular thing, I think, would be one of those matters we would have to iron out when it hits us. I still say that officially it is the Employment Service that

is the one to find whether or not there is really a shortage. The other agencies may indicate a fear that a shortage exists.

The CHAIRMAN. Do you know of any actual instances where there has been any shortage reported to the War Board, and what action, if any, they took?

Mr. ROGERS. Not at the present time. In the early months of last year, there were some questions that came up in the farm labor subcommittees, but as for the war boards themselves, they were created a little later on. I don't know of any such questions that have come to my attention.

Mr. BLACK. Isn't it a correct statement that last year the local labor subcommittees tended to anticipate a considerably larger labor shortage than the Employment Service later found to exist?

Mr. ROGERS. Mr. Black, I will have to refer to a statement already made. Early in the year, everybody was anticipating troubles that later didn't develop to the extent that they anticipated. Whether it was the committee itself or whether the stage at which they were doing the anticipating that caused that difference, would be a question.

Dr. LAMB. I think I might have a question relating to that later.

FUNCTIONS OF SUBCOMMITTEES AS COMPARED WITH WAR BOARDS

Mr. SMITH. I might comment on the labor subcommittees' function as compared with that of the war boards.

The labor subcommittees of the Planning Committee constituting, as Mr. Rogers has pointed out, representatives not only of the agencies of the Department, but also of the farmers, and also of representatives of Employment Service and W. P. A. and sometimes other agencies, get together and study the labor situation, get all of the information that they can get from various sources on the labor situation. They study and attempt to develop plans for action that might be taken to remedy a situation or an anticipated situation. Now, in these deliberations, the Department agencies, and Employment Service and other agencies, are all sitting together, and they attempt to develop plans to be put into action by the appropriate agencies, whatever those agencies may be.

In most of these cases, as Mr. Rogers has pointed out, the action would be taken by the Employment Service. Sometimes action might be taken by an agency of the Department of Agriculture.

For example, housing might be a problem, and the Department of Agriculture, through its Farm Security Administration, might be able to do something to remedy a housing problem in a particular area. Now, the war boards, made up of representatives of the Department and of the Extension Service, would coordinate all action taken on farm labor problems by the agencies of the Department of Agriculture. Inasmuch as the same Department agencies that are represented on the war boards are also represented on the labor subcommittees, along with farmers and representatives of other agencies, outside of the Department, the war boards are informed constantly of the information that is developed and the plans that are developed and recommendations for action to be taken by the appropriate agencies.

Dr. LAMB. Another question along the same general lines. Do either the land-use planning committees or the agricultural war boards on the State and county levels, take their directives from the Department of Agriculture, Mr. Rogers?

Mr. ROGERS. War boards would, to a greater extent than the other groups, if I understand what you mean by "directive." In other words, the war boards are made up of Department representatives only and represent operating agencies.

Of course, Washington may refer to the land-use planning committees items that generally need attention and, by and large, they would consider them. This is a planning group.

Dr. LAMB. One more question with respect to the war boards. What is the theory behind the choice of the chairmen of the county A. A. A. committee as the chairman of the local war board?

Mr. ROGERS. I don't know that I could give you an entirely adequate answer for the Department. It is my understanding that one of the principal reasons is because there is a direct line of administration from the Secretary down into the county, through that channel.

Dr. LAMB. A question about the land-use committee. What does the B. A. E. do with the information submitted by the farm labor subcommittees? Maybe Mr. Smith would like to answer that.

USE OF INFORMATION SUBMITTED BY SUBCOMMITTEES

Mr. SMITH. The information submitted by the farm labor subcommittee is considered along with information from all other sources on the labor situation. Now, the principal sources of information on the farm labor situation are the Agricultural Marketing Service and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, which services planning committees.

The farm labor subcommittees are, you might say, consumers of all of the information on farm labor that they can get from Agricultural Marketing Service and other sources, W. P. A. studies, Census reports, and any information that the Employment Service will be obtaining through its program. Inasmuch as they are members of these labor subcommittees, Employment Service employees can get information on farm labor problems from the committees.

Dr. LAMB. My question is: What happens to the information coming from the subcommittees to the B. A. E.? Does that come to the B. A. E. or to you, Mr. Rogers?

Mr. ROGERS. To the B. A. E. Of course, it is available to us.

Mr. SMITH. That information is used in Washington along with information from all other sources in developing the information and suggestions to pass on down in turn to the committees. I might say that last year the farm labor statistics gathering machinery at the Department of Agriculture, through the Agricultural Marketing Service, was not adequate and, for a time last summer, these labor subcommittees were called upon to furnish information about local situations, more than normally would be the case. There no doubt would always be reporting of problems that they were facing, but furnishing actual statistical information, or anything of that type, was sort of an unusual function for them to perform.

They did that for a time last summer, due to the fact that we did not have as complete machinery for gathering farm labor statistics at that time as we expect to have during the coming season.

Mr. ROGERS. I was just going to add to this, that among other things coming back in we get a picture of some of the problems that they have and, while we feel the final and most important work on

the actual supplying of farm labor is something that will have to be done in the States, or locally, there are policies that can be set. They can't handle some of these problems down there until the information is on hand here and policies determined by agencies concerned. We try to see that necessary arrangements are made here so that they can go ahead in each State or local community.

Dr. LAMB. I was going to ask whether last summer the local or State committees were used to check the earlier reports which they and the Agricultural Marketing Service had arrived at with respect to impending shortages? Was there a recheck made during the summer?

Mr. SMITH. They attempted to keep in touch with the situation constantly, and as the situation changed, or appeared to change, they were conscious of that by following it closely all the way through.

Dr. LAMB. I ask because, for example, in our hearings in Michigan, we discovered that the Agricultural Marketing Service had reported that, according to its index of supply and demand the supply in Michigan during the early summer had been expected to be 49 percent of the demand. A recheck was made—exactly who did this, I don't know—and according to information received by us, this recheck proved that no substantial shortage existed. I wondered what machinery was used for such recheck, and whether it was done by the B. A. E.

AGRICULTURAL MARKETING SERVICE SURVEYS

Mr. SMITH. The Agricultural Marketing Service surveys or their gathering of information is a continuous process, reported monthly. As soon as those figures would show a change in the situation, the information would go directly from the Agricultural Marketing Service to these committees, as well as to the B. A. E., and other people in Washington. If the Agricultural Marketing Service obtained later information which varied from earlier information, that would be sent to the field for the benefit of the committees in their future deliberations.

Mr. BLACK. But the facts are that that 49 percent supply-and-demand figure, reported by Agricultural Marketing Service early in the season, was not changed appreciably by later reports through the Agricultural Marketing Service?

Mr. SMITH. I am not familiar with the figures for the State of Michigan, but if the figures reflected a change at any time, the figures became available to all committees immediately.

Mr. BLACK. That method of reporting did not at any time reveal the real supply and demand situation.

Mr. SMITH. Those particular reports consider supply as a percentage of demand in relation to what the reporters considered to be normal.

We have to recognize that what many people came to consider as a normal situation was a considerable surplus of farm labor. In some areas, even though the percentage of supply to normal appeared to be a fairly small percentage, if in that particular area the normal situation had become one of considerable surplus, that still might not mean that the farmers would be unable to obtain sufficient labor.

However, I think that action taken in the way of better recruiting and more efficient utilization of existing supplies, increases in wage

rates, and many of the points Mr. Rogers has just mentioned, may have entered into it, and the farmers actually were able, by following these methods, to get by better than they had thought they would. That was the case in some areas.

Dr. LAMB. I think we will come back to this line of questioning a little later. I would like to ask one more question. My question is whether you think it would be desirable for the Land Use Planning Committees to have representatives of agricultural laborers on those committees, and if so, how would you suggest that labor participation be instituted?

Mr. SMITH. There would certainly be no objection to it. It should be desirable.

The problem they had last year and the problem we still have, is that of helping the Employment Service, interpreting the Employment Service to the operators and laborers, and interpreting the operators' and laborers' problems to the Employment Service.

One or two States, according to the information I have, are suggesting putting some representatives of farm workers on, but I am sorry I don't know just the method they are following. There would be some problems involved in getting that done, I believe.

WOMEN'S LAND ARMY

Mr. SPARKMAN. Mr. Rogers, I would like to ask you whether you think that a women's land army will be necessary in 1942.

Mr. ROGERS. Mr. Congressman, that term, "Women's land army" is like some of these other terms. I don't know just what it means.

If it means what I think we generally imply, an organization all over the country, the answer is "No." Some States, some localities may, without much question, need to use women in agriculture more this year than they have in the past.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Your thought is that it would be a desirable thing in certain sections or localities, but probably would not be necessary generally?

Mr. ROGERS. That is right. If it is needed in those localities, and is handled properly, it would be desirable.

Mr. SPARKMAN. And you are in favor of it with those limitations?

Mr. ROGERS. It still goes back to what you mean by that general loose term.

Mr. SPARKMAN. The whole thing resolves itself into a question of necessity, doesn't it?

Mr. ROGERS. That is right.

Mr. SPARKMAN. What general effect would such employment of women have on the agricultural wage structure?

Mr. ROGERS. Of course, our idea had been that such a move would be under the direction of Employment Service, and that the Employment Service would follow its usual policy, in first utilizing fully all of the normal labor supply, and that group would not be brought in until such time as there was an actual necessity for it. It should be brought in on whatever the standard working conditions are.

Mr. SPARKMAN. We did use women's services quite extensively in agriculture during the last war, did we not?

Mr. ROGERS. I believe so. I don't know just how extensively.

Mr. SPARKMAN. And at that time the assignments were made, were they not, under the supervision of the Employment Service and the Department of Labor?

Mr. ROGERS. That may have varied from State to State, Mr. Congressman. I am not positive as to the details of it.

Mr. SPARKMAN. But every effort was made to make these placements according to approved working and living conditions and so forth?

Mr. ROGERS. I believe so.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Now, in the event that instead of using the term "women's land army" which we agree is subject to various interpretations, suppose I just refer to it as the extensive employment of women in agriculture? If that policy is adopted during this war, do you think that care should be taken to see that those standards are maintained?

Mr. ROGERS. Yes, sir.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Hours of work and proper working conditions, and you are in favor of their receiving the same wage as men would receive for doing the same work over the same time and under the same conditions?

Mr. ROGERS. It should at least be comparable.

BOYS' WORKING RESERVE IN LAST WAR

Mr. SPARKMAN. We understand also that during the last war some 300,000 boys below the draft age were enrolled and placed on farms by the Department of Labor, that is, the United States Employment Branch of the Department of Labor, through the Boys' Working Reserve.

These boys were given physical examinations, paid what was deemed a fair wage, their work and living conditions were supervised to prevent exploitation and loss of educational opportunities.

If youth is similarly enrolled in agricultural work for this war, do you think that similar standards should be maintained?

Mr. ROGERS. I think so. The problem of youth, the Boys' Working Reserve, and Women's Land Army, would probably parallel very closely.

Mr. SPARKMAN. What agency do you think should prescribe those standards and exercise supervision?

Mr. ROGERS. Those agencies that were working on standards for other groups would probably be best equipped to do it.

The Department of Labor, I believe, did quite a bit of that, and some of the State Departments of Labor.

Of course, you should consider some of your agricultural problems along with the determination of the standards of wages and working conditions, but those agencies that would ordinarily do that, I feel should exercise the same responsibility here.

IMPORTATION OF LABOR UNNECESSARY

Mr. SPARKMAN. I believe it is also true that during the last war immigration restrictions were lowered so as to permit the importation of Mexican labor, labor from the Bahamas Islands. Already, I believe, there is some demand for the admission of Mexican laborers. Do you think that the importation of alien labor would be necessary during this year?

Mr. ROGERS. With the labor that we have in the United States properly utilized, it should not be necessary.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Is that going to require shifting of the people in order to be properly utilized?

Mr. ROGERS. I think without any question it is going to require full and better use of people already in agricultural producing areas, and some shifting of workers from area to area, particularly for seasonal crops.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Will it require extensive shifting? By that I mean would it require a considerable number, and in instances moving over considerable distances?

Mr. ROGERS. We already have, through our seasonal shifts, what I would term "considerable shifting." A lot of what we have had in the past, of course, has been more or less undirected. Now, we need a great deal more directed movement from place to place this year than we have had in the past.

Mr. SPARKMAN. What agency should have the responsibility of saying whether or not alien labor was necessary?

Mr. ROGERS. The United States Employment Service.

Mr. SPARKMAN. While employers of Mexicans and other alien labor have contended that they were necessary, other groups in the various communities have argued that such labor is exploited to the detriment of wage standards, creating various problems of relief, health and so forth. Can you recommend how such problems can be met without imposing burdens on others in the community?

Mr. ROGERS. Should it become necessary to bring the workers in, they should be brought in with the understanding that they have the same standards as others in the community. If we work on the basis of not bringing them in until we have first utilized the workers in the country, they should be brought in at the standard generally existing here at that time.

POSITION ON DEFERMENT OF FARM LABOR

Mr. SPARKMAN. I am getting a great many complaints, and I presume every representative from farm areas gets similar complaints, about the failure of the Selective Service to give proper regard to deferment of farm labor. What has the Office of Agricultural Defense Relations done with reference to this?

Mr. ROGERS. The Department has been working with the Selective Service System ever since the office was established. Of course, the Office of Agricultural Defense Relations came into the picture a little later.

The Department has found by and large that the Selective Service System has been giving agriculture very equitable consideration. There are, of course, problems in agriculture that are a little different than others. In some cases you can't quite so distinctly draw the line between specific occupations.

However, they have taken those things into consideration, and by and large it is our feeling that agricultural workers have been given fair consideration.

In some local boards, and in some cases, it is possible, judging from the letters you get and the letters we get, that there might be some

question about that. We are still working with them and trying to get even a further clarification of the problem.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I want it understood that my question did not imply any criticism of General Hershey or the Selective Service System, because I think they have certainly shown an intention of following the proper policy, but these complaints do come in. I realize it may depend very largely upon the functioning of the local boards.

Mr. ROGERS. The question of deferment sometimes is the question of dependency or an occupational deferment. Another thing that comes in on the occupational end is whether the farm is contributing something to the market.

The Selective Service has instructed their local boards in considering agricultural deferments to consider first the importance of the product, second the farm itself, whether it is a going concern, that is, contributing to the market, and third, the skill of the man and the difficulty in replacing the man, and fourth, the relative shortage of labor.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I didn't catch the first one.

Mr. ROGERS. The importance of the product.

Mr. SPARKMAN. By that do you mean a farm laborer on the farm producing food of the type that is particularly desired would be given a higher deferment than one on a farm producing cotton?

Mr. ROGERS. Sometimes one might bear a little heavier in the minds of the local boards than the other.

Mr. SPARKMAN. And don't you believe that putting into effect this policy of deferment that every effort should be made to preserve the family unit as a producing unit, rather than replacing a member of the family by a hired laborer?

Mr. ROGERS. That would largely come up as a question of dependency, which would not come into your occupational group.

Mr. MADDOX. May I interrupt just a moment?

Mr. SPARKMAN. Yes.

COMPLEXITIES OF PROBLEM OF LABOR SUPPLY

Mr. MADDOX. It seems to me the whole question as to whether or not we need to use women and children and perhaps foreign sources to give us an adequate labor supply, is an extremely complex one. It involves the whole problem of how we should allocate our total labor supply in this country as between armed forces, certain lines of agricultural production, and certain lines of industrial production. It also involves the possibility or feasibility of some changes in our agricultural organization, agricultural plant, as to size and type of units, just as the allocation of industrial production goes to various sizes and types of units, some of which are not now utilized.

Moreover, in the question as to how foreign labor can be used, in view of our policy of hemispheric solidarity, it seems to me that we have to reckon with what production Mexican labor might be engaged in in Mexico, as well as what it might be engaged in if it was brought to this country.

We need, in other words, to view the relation of the various lines of labor to the various lines of production, not only in this country, but in the hemisphere.

If appropriate, I should be very much interested in knowing Mr. Black's reaction. I know he is a thorough student of all the ramifications of the agricultural supply.

Mr. BLACK. I think we had better defer that until later in the morning.

Mr. SPARKMAN. We will be glad to hear you at the appropriate time.

Of course, Mr. Rogers, I think you have shown in your answers the importance of special consideration being given to the deferment of farm workers, if essential.

Mr. ROGERS. As individuals.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Based on individuals. It is just as important as it is in industry or any part of the war production program.

It is our understanding that several States have passed "work or fight" laws during the last war, directed in part toward transient workers.

Our attention has recently been directed to a practice of a local defense council in one State posting placards in agricultural areas which read, "Work or fight. This means you."

Do you know of any such instances, or do you know if they require legislative authority?

Mr. ROGERS. No, sir; I am sorry, I don't know of any such instances.

SOURCES OF FARM LABOR SUPPLY

Mr. SPARKMAN. If new sources are to be tapped in providing farm labor, will these be mainly urban or rural?

Mr. ROGERS. I would say they will have to be mainly urban, if you consider new individuals. The sources that are already there in the rural communities could be utilized much better, and if we are able to keep a man working 6 instead of 4 days a week he works more and accomplishes more and gets more wages.

There would be a tendency for your rural workers, if they happened to be located where the production is, to go into industry. By and large, the new sources would be urban, with the exception—as Mr. Taeuber will undoubtedly bring out a little later—that there are a good many sections of the country where we could easily move workers from farming areas having surplus labor to places where they could be better used.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I remember some time ago someone who testified before us brought out the point that we usually don't reckon correctly as to the unemployed in rural sections, due to the fact that unemployment there is not felt or shown so clearly. If you have five members in the family, in times where the ultimate production is required, all of them will be working. If the time comes when there is plenty or a surplus, all five will continue to work, dividing the work among them, and they are not producing to their utmost. I wonder if there is much of that in the country now?

Mr. ROGERS. Probably a considerable amount of it, and of course there are two ways to work on the thing, and either method has some practical limitation.

One way to help would be to try to get better production on the farm where the family of five is located, and keep them employed more throughout the year. The other would be to move them to the place where the big production is. By working from both directions——

Mr. SPARKMAN. You could obtain the greatest utilization of that labor reserve?

Mr. ROGERS. That is right. In the war endeavor, one thing that should be done, wherever it is practical, is to encourage the location of the war industries in the areas where this surplus group is located.

Mr. SPARKMAN. What has happened to the wage levels of farm labor? Has there been a tendency for the depression wages to hold on, or has there been an increase?

Mr. ROGERS. In general, farm wages have followed farm prices pretty well.

Mr. SPARKMAN. That is always true, isn't it?

Mr. ROGERS. I think it is generally true.

Mr. SPARKMAN. To what extent are current farm labor shortages a reflection of inadequate wages and working conditions?

Mr. ROGERS. In many cases it is just that.

INADEQUACY OF FARM WAGES

Mr. SPARKMAN. Is it the inadequacy of the wages on the farm or is it the opportunity that the worker on the farm has to go to some defense plant or war production industry and get better wages?

Mr. ROGERS. Of course, many have gone to defense plants or war production industries, and received higher wages, and that in part has led to the necessity for paying higher wages for farm work. I think that factor is the thing we are talking about. If it costs \$10 a month more to get a hired man than it did, that increase in wages is what occurs.

Mr. SPARKMAN. If we speak of the inadequacy of farm wages, I think that it makes a great deal of difference whether we mean the inadequacy compared to farm prices, or whether we mean the inadequacy as compared to wages in industry. Naturally the farmer must take into consideration the cost of production as well as the industrialist. Is it your thought that the wages he pays for farm labor must follow more closely the curve of the prices he gets for his product, rather than the curve of the prices paid to the person working in industry?

Mr. ROGERS. Of course, there is a limit that the farmer can go in paying wages. At the same time, the wages paid in other industries are bound to have an effect. It is a question of competition.

Mr. SPARKMAN. But he must be careful that those lines never cross, musn't he? I mean as between the price he gets for his products and the wages?

Mr. ROGERS. There is a limit beyond which he cannot go and stay in business, even on a farm.

MINIMUM WAGES FOR FARM LABOR

Mr. SPARKMAN. Yes. There has been some agitation for the extension of minimum wages to farm labor. Do you believe this would stabilize the agricultural labor supply and reduce the incentive to migrate to industrial centers?

Mr. ROGERS. Of course, that is tied up with all these other things.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Your previous answer would apply to that?

Mr. ROGERS. Yes; and one difficulty in agricultural wages has been the difference in wages paid between farmers in one section and the wages paid by farmers who may be 100 miles away.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Those things have a way of sifting themselves down pretty well, don't they?

Mr. ROGERS. Once in awhile.

Mr. SPARKMAN. But sometimes they are a little slow?

Mr. ROGERS. Yes.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Does the Department of Agriculture have available data on wages and farm costs sufficiently accurate to determine the feasibility of a wage policy on farm labor?

Mr. SMITH. The Department has considerable information that would be very helpful, I think, in making any determination.

ADMINISTRATION OF WAGE PROVISIONS

Mr. SPARKMAN. If there ever should be an extension of the minimum wage law to agricultural workers, would it be your recommendation that it be administered in the Department of Labor, the Wage and Hours Division, or should it be administered in the Department of Agriculture as in the case of the sugar acts?

Mr. SMITH. Were you directing that to me?

Mr. SPARKMAN. Any of you.

Mr. SMITH. I do not know of the Department's official attitude on that matter. My own idea would be that it should be administered by the agency administering similar provisions for other labor in the country. I feel the Department of Agriculture could be very helpful to such an agency, furnishing them information and otherwise.

The sugar provisions on labor standards do not apply generally, even to all workers in sugar. They apply to those sugar workers on farms which participate in the agricultural adjustment program.

As a practical matter it reaches nearly all of them, because most of them participate in the A. A. A. program.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Those that are not reached, generally speaking, are they the employees of the big sugar producers, or the small individual farmers?

Mr. SMITH. I am not sure of the situation there. I would be inclined to think that probably they would be somewhat more among the larger operators, but that may be incorrect.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Do any of you other gentlemen have anything you want to say about that question, as to whether it should be administered by the Wage and Hour Division or the Department of Agriculture?

WAGES OF COTTON LABORERS AND MILL WORKERS CONTRASTED

Mr. BLACK. I might remark that the Wage and Hour Division would be administering wages of farm laborers, as well as laborers in cotton textile mills, and the like, in the South. You would have the peculiar situation of 35 and 40 cents an hour in textile mills, too, and 10 cents an hour on cotton farms, and that might look a little obvious and something more might be done about it. As a matter of fact, with cotton at 10 and 15 cents a pound, he can't afford to pay any

more, and faced with the Wage and Hour Division's setting a wage for cotton textile mills in the same territory of 35 cents an hour——

Mr. SPARKMAN. I believe it has gone to 40 now.

Mr. BLACK. That has had a great deal to do with precipitation of the acute situation in the United States with respect to demands for higher prices for farm products.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Of course, you are familiar, I suppose, with the generally accepted idea, among farmers at least, that the hourly wage that farmers can afford to pay for farm labor is the price of a pound of cotton.

If cotton sells at 20 cents a pound as it is selling now, he can afford to pay 20 cents an hour for his labor. If it sells for 8 cents a pound, that is all he can pay per hour.

Your idea is, as I understand it, we might probably look for a greater maladjustment, or misadjustment, if the Wage and Hour Division should try to set farm prices comparable to industrial prices?

Mr. BLACK. It would create a situation in which a very large migration of labor, especially the farm people of the South, would have to take place, which may, of course, be something this country very much needs, in order to secure a more equitable distribution of our resources between our population in various sections.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Of course, we have a large migration of people out of the South all the time.

Mr. BLACK. But not fast enough to equalize opportunities in the South.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Is it due to the speed in migration or the excellent speed in reproduction?

Mr. BLACK. Both.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I remember Dr. Vance told us a few years ago that the southeast is the seedbed of the Nation and will continue to be.

Mr. BLACK. But by the time it gets to the harvest, it suffers from both poor health and low standards of living.

I merely remarked that if the Wage and Hour Division were given the job of administering this they would have a pretty situation on their hands. They would be faced with the anomaly of setting 15 cents for one and 40 cents for the other. I wonder what they could do about it? I would like to see them faced with it.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I wouldn't. I don't mind saying that I am a strong believer in the fact that wage levels on the farm must be determined by the price the farmer gets for his products.

Mr. BLACK. I would be inclined to say that, practically speaking, that is correct. Of course, I don't agree with Mr. Rogers' statement that wages of farm labor have been determined by farm prices. As a matter of fact, since the World War the level of wages on farm labor has been as much due to unemployment in cities as it has been to the prices of farm products. I could demonstrate that to you.

FARM WAGES AND PRICE LEVELS

Movements up and down from year to year tend to reflect farm prices somewhat, but the level has been as much due to unemployment and underemployment in cities, and the damming back of labor supply on the farm, as it has been to farm income.

Mr. SPARKMAN. I don't want to argue with you. It seems to me that goes back to the old question, which came first, the hen or the egg. As a matter of fact, where those conditions existed, the farm prices were down and reflected the same conditions.

Mr. BLACK. The wages of farm labor in the last depression, from 1921 on to 1929, when there was plenty of employment in the cities and migration was moving rapidly, were high in relation to prices of farm products.

In the depression, when unemployment set in in the cities, wages were low, in relation to prices of farm products, and they have only gone up to somewhere near the pre-war relation in the last 2 or 3 years.

PRODUCTIVE CAPACITY AS PARAMOUNT ISSUE

Mr. MADDOX. I would like to suggest that the setting of wages for farm labor is closely tied in with other things Government might do. It should not be viewed wholly as a wage-price problem.

The things Government might do with respect to health and education might be as important as wages of agricultural laborers, and I would also like to suggest that during a war period, a real emergency situation such as we have now, we should not be too extremely conscious of wages and prices and profits.

What we need to think about is productive capacity and resources by which you could make that productive capacity produce what is needed to be produced.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Gentlemen, I would like very much to sit on with you through the entire hearing, but it is necessary for me to go to a meeting of the Military Affairs Committee, of which I am a member. I have enjoyed it immensely, and only wish I could stay here.

Dr. LAMB. Mr. Arnold will be here shortly after 11 o'clock. I will carry on from where Congressman Sparkman left off.

QUESTIONS ON 1941 AGRICULTURAL REPORT

Mr. Rogers, can you tell the committee why the Secretary of Agriculture has urged Congress to make fair-wage hearings under the Sugar Act optional rather than mandatory?

Mr. ROGERS. I don't know. I am sorry, I couldn't tell you.

Dr. LAMB. In the Secretary's report for 1941 on page 158 he states:

To industrial workers, legislative achievements of the past few years have brought the boons of fair wages and hours and a measure of social security. The time must come when similar benefits are extended to farm workers.

Would you care to express an opinion as to when this time will come?

Mr. SMITH. I think I would say that I would agree with the Secretary, who stated it has come, if I understand your question.

Dr. LAMB. As far as farm workers are concerned, he simply said "the time must come when similar benefits are extended."

Mr. SMITH. Then I would express my personal opinion that the sooner the better.

Mr. MADDOX. Dr. Lamb, isn't that a question more dependent upon the actions of this committee and Congress, than on the executive branches of the Government?

Dr. LAMB. I might ask in turn whether it is not more the function of the constituents of both the executive and legislative branches of the Government?

Mr. MADDOX. I agree with you.

Dr. LAMB. And, of course, secretaries have as close touch with those constituents as Members of Congress, and perhaps a little more, because they have to consult them closely only every 2 years, whereas the Secretary hears from them by machinery already established, quite continuously.

Mr. MADDOX. That is true.

Dr. LAMB. The next question, and the last which I wanted to direct to Mr. Rogers and Mr. Smith is:

The Secretary of Agriculture points out in the same page of his report, that improvement of conditions for farm laborers depends upon improved farm incomes. He then says:

Yet the Department does not intend to wait for some set fund of larger income to be returned to agriculture before taking steps to improve the lot of farm laborers.

Would you care to amplify this statement?

Mr. ROGERS. I think in amplifying it it would be purely on a personal basis.

Mr. Maddox mentioned awhile ago a lot of other things come into this picture, such as housing, and a good many other elements that go to make up actual living. I think perhaps those are the things he had in mind. I am just assuming that is the case.

Dr. LAMB. The next questions are directed to Mr. Conrad Taeuber—and again, if there are points which other members of the panel wish to raise, I wish they would do so.

Many persons have been puzzled by the seeming paradox of surplus population and labor shortages existing simultaneously in agriculture.

Will you comment on this?

MALDISTRIBUTION OF FARM LABOR

Mr. TAEUBER. I think Mr. Rogers already pointed to one of the reasons for that and that is it is largely a matter of geographical distribution.

We do have a relatively large volume of underemployed persons in certain areas. Some of those persons are remote from the areas where there are large demands for agricultural workers, and some are rather nearby, but there are various reasons—cultural, traditional, some relating to race and others to background and training—which have made it difficult to shift from areas where we have this underemployed or ineffectively employed volume of workers, to the area where agricultural workers are needed.

Dr. LAMB. It is still true to say that despite the great increases contemplated in agricultural production, there are and will be in the foreseeable future, too many people engaged in agriculture?

Mr. TAEUBER. I would like to answer that by rephrasing your statement. I think it is true in the foreseeable future that we can handle the expected increases with the number of people we now have.

Again it becomes a matter of the extent to which we can utilize efficiently the manpower that is available.

Dr. LAMB. Of course, we are faced at the moment with the question of our full use of labor supply, using labor in its broadest terms, on behalf of the war effort in prospect for the next couple of years, and the pressure of shortages is going to be great.

Would you give an estimate of how many people could be spared from agriculture at this time without impairing agricultural production?

SURPLUS LABOR

Mr. TAEUBER. That is a figure that is extremely difficult to give. I think it could be demonstrated on paper that we could spare as many as 2,000,000 providing we could reorganize the others on an efficient basis. That figure is probably too high, because the machinery and necessary funds to an agency like the Farm Security Administration are not available at the moment.

The excess above replacement needs, running in the neighborhood of 200,000 young people a year on farms, is available. Possibly several hundred thousand and possibly more than a million of the very low income farms could readily spare at least 1 person without serious impairment, provided we have machinery to make the adjustment on the other end.

We have 1940 census figures showing volumes of workers unemployed. Perhaps the inventory of manpower will give us a better picture of how many of those are still left in the large areas where relatively large numbers have been congregated.

We recognize that during the depression years a great many people who also come in this category moved to neighboring farm areas, and now would also be available.

Dr. LAMB. Students have been pointing out for some years—and in fact from time to time I feel it is the favorite statistic of the Department of Agriculture—that 50 percent of the farmers account for only 10 percent of commercial farm production. Can you amplify this census finding with particular studies?

Mr. TAEUBER. The one most frequently quoted is the 1929 figure. The 1940 census now provides similar figures.

Dr. LAMB. Those have been computed?

Mr. TAEUBER. I believe Mr. Maddox worked it out recently.

Mr. MADDOX. Yes. Now, I believe that the estimate is that about half of the farmers produce 12 percent of the total value of agricultural production.

Dr. LAMB. In other words, the lower half have now increased their production from 10 to 12 percent?

Mr. TAEUBER. Those figures are not directly comparable. That 10-percent figure applies to marketed crops.

Dr. LAMB. So actually the percentage may have fallen. We can't be sure either way?

PART-TIME FARMING

Mr. TAEUBER. As I recollect, the comparable figure would be 13 or 14 percent.

Mr. MADDOX. There is indication it has fallen, as a matter of fact.

Mr. TAEUBER. In that low-income group, of course, are included many of the persons who carry on farming on a part-time basis. Some of them have other incomes, that is, they work at nonagricultural activities for half or more of the working year. In that figure are included also some individuals who are part time, but do not have other employment. They are part time because of physical disabilities, or old age.

There has been an increase in farm operators over 65. There are plenty of farm operators over 75, many not able to carry on full-scale operations. But, included in that are a large number of farm families who do not have the capital resources, equipment, or the skills or farm plant, to permit them to get, under present conditions, a large income, and they do not have access to any sizable amount of income from any other source.

Mr. MADDOX. In this connection, Mr. Taeuber, is it approximately accurate, do you think, to say that there are about a million farmers, who are now reckoned as farmers by the census, who are hardly farmers in the productive sense of the word, among them being an older-aged group, who are near retirement, and also those who work a very large proportion of their time off the farm?

Mr. TAEUBER. It is probably somewhat larger than a million. I don't have the figures here of the number of persons reporting a large amount of work off the farm, but I notice in this table that there were, according to the 1940 census, approximately 2,000,000 farms which produced a gross value of products of less than \$400 in 1939. We have no cross tabulations to tell us what kinds of farms those are, but we do know the number of operators working a large amount of time off the farm plus the number of operators over 65, is well in excess of 2,000,000.

Dr. LAMB. Is there any possibility that the census will be able to cross table those figures?

Mr. TAEUBER. I understand the Census has made plans with respect to the cross tabulation.

Dr. LAMB. Is it still pending with respect to the deficiency bill?

Mr. TAEUBER. That is my understanding.

Mr. BLACK. I am afraid it doesn't get to the background we really want, of just the nature of this group, how many of them are real part-time farmers, how many are residential farmers, and people with pensions, and other such income, living on a piece of land. I don't think they have got information that will enable them to break that down the way we need to have it.

Dr. LAMB. In other words, our true farm population is not well defined and could not be without a break-down of the kind which you mention?

Mr. BLACK. You can get a good break-down of that type for the State of Connecticut as of the census of 1929.

Dr. LAMB. But only for the State of Connecticut and the census of 1929?

Mr. BLACK. Yes. I am just trying to show you how far you can expect to get with just census information on that.

Mr. ARNOLD. Mr. Taeuber, does the Department have any evidence that morale may be low among some of the poorest farm families?

Mr. TAEUBER. I am not sufficiently familiar with the present status of their morale to answer that.

Mr. ARNOLD. Did you hear the question, Mr. Smith?

Mr. SMITH. I can't say that the Department has any particular measure or statistical evidence of it. I believe, however, that many employees of the Department who are in contact with very low income farm families feel that their morale probably is much lower than the morale of families who have an income that will give them a better standard of living.

ADAPTABILITY OF FARM LABOR TO WAR PRODUCTION

Mr. ARNOLD. I notice the Secretary of Agriculture in his report for 1941, page 158, states that farmers tend to underrate the skill and knowledge of their workers for the purpose of keeping down farm wages. Would you comment on the adaptability of rural skills and knowledge for industrial war production?

Mr. TAEUBER. You are faced there with the obvious fact that educational backgrounds in many rural areas are well below the average which is normally considered as necessary to meet modern industrial requirements.

On the other hand, the experience gathered in recent years seems to indicate that the plants that have been established in some of these rural areas, have succeeded in getting a very high quality of worker. That is, they have found that with the training in manual skills which is required on the farm, they can very quickly develop a labor force which has many other highly desirable qualities. Physical stamina, dependability, a high degree of morale, a willingness to continue on the job and perhaps to forego some individual interests for the sake of the job, seem to be qualities that have been developed. It seems to me it is partly a matter of training and partly a matter of skill, manual skill. We have them both here.

Mr. MADDOX. Isn't it true that in any belt-line type of production, the job performed by the individual worker is often an extremely simple job? For instance, I live in an area, from which, during the early twenties, many uneducated people went to Detroit to work in the automobile factories. They had, one would think, no skill, and perhaps that is true. Yet they obtained jobs and drew high wages because the job the individual does on an assembly line is usually an extremely simple job.

Mr. ARNOLD. I think that is true, and our observation at the Pratt & Whitney plant at Hartford, Conn., is that that has been broken down further, and men who go in there and work on the motors won't be mechanics when they finish.

Mr. SMITH. And I think you will find that a lot of these farm jobs are more technical and require more training and knowledge of a good many more things that, in effect, makes your farm man harder to replace than a man in the simple belt-line tasks.

SIGNIFICANCE OF MIGRATION SURVEYS

Mr. ARNOLD. I think that is true. The Work Projects Administration concludes from its migration surveys that the cityward migration of farm people this past year is relatively insignificant. [To Mr. Taeuber.] Do you agree with that conclusion?

Mr. TAEUBER. I don't believe I could agree with that as stated. As I interpret their surveys, they show that the migration into some of these defense areas from farms has been relatively insignificant, but the material that we have indicates that there has been, during the years since the defense effort started, a considerable increase, just as there was an increase in preceding years, away from farms.

Dr. LAMB. That is on the basis of out-migration?

Mr. TAEUBER. Yes; much of that out-migration is to smaller towns and cities, and some of it is replacement of the workers there who went to these defense centers.

Dr. LAMB. These studies are of communities of 25,000 and up?

Mr. TAEUBER. Yes.

Dr. LAMB. Has that some bearing on the failure to find those out-migrants, in your estimation?

Mr. TAEUBER. That has some bearing.

Mr. BLACK. But that didn't cover the absorption of these people in nondefense industries. In this year which is ahead of us, the war production agencies are estimating that 10,000,000 more people are going to be drawn into defense industries. They are going to leave some awful gaps in civilian employment in cities that have got to be filled by somebody. The opportunities for absorption of people out of these congested areas, into civilian occupations, is going to be tremendous. We shouldn't think of this in terms simply of absorption of these people in defense plants. The first place they are liable to go is not to defense plants, but rather to these other industries.

Dr. LAMB. I think we can observe that in Washington, where the number of youngsters coming in from southern Virginia or North Carolina or possibly Tennessee and West Virginia, is quite sizeable, in jobs such as soda fountains and lunchrooms, and places of that kind, where a low grade of skill is required, and plenty of energy is called for. These people are certainly getting jobs here, as anyone around can observe.

MIGRATION OF NEGROES

Mr. ARNOLD. The Work Projects Administration also finds that the migration of Negroes is of minor importance. Do you expect that Negro migration will increase in volume in the near future?

Mr. TAEUBER. Our figures indicate that on the whole, the migration of Negroes did not decrease to the same extent during the nineteen-thirties as the migration of whites decreased, and such evidence as we have would indicate there will continue to be a considerable migration of Negroes.

Again I think the fact Mr. Black brought out a moment ago is important. They may not get into defense employment in comparable volume. On the other hand, they may replace some of the people who have gone to war employment.

Mr. ROGERS. Another thing is the extent to which defense industries and other employers alter their requirements for workers so as to make certain of these groups acceptable in the plant.

Mr. ARNOLD. There has been a great deal of discussion regarding return migration from California. Do you have any information on that subject?

MOVEMENT INTO ARIZONA FROM CALIFORNIA

Mr. TAEUBER. We have one bit of information secured from the border patrol. The Bureau of Plant Quarantine has been making a count for a number of years. The Bureau of Plant Quarantine in Arizona recently has been making a similar count.

I might say the inspectors ask no questions. They make the classification simply by looking at the car and the occupants.

Those figures do indicate some increase in the volume of persons coming into Arizona from California during December, as compared

with the earlier months of 1941. However, the number moving in that direction is still less than the number moving in the other direction, or was in December and has been a constant back and forth movement.

A large number of the migrants from California have gone back. Perhaps that is related to the improved employment conditions back home. There may recently have been some increase in migration in that direction, but as far as our figures go it is still less than the volume going the other way.

Dr. LAMB. How did the December 1941 figures for Arizona compare with December 1940? There is always a migration into Arizona in the latter months of the year for cotton.

Mr. TAEUBER. The figures for December 1940 and December 1941 indicate an increase of approximately 20 percent, but the figure for December 1941 which is the largest for any month in 1941, is less than the figure for November 1940. (See table below:)

Persons, members of parties in need of manual employment entering California and Arizona by motor vehicle, January 1940-December 1941

Month and year	Entering California via Arizona and Nevada boundary	Entering Arizona via western boundary	Month and year	Entering California via Arizona and Nevada boundary	Entering Arizona via western boundary
1940			1941-Continued		
January.....	3,814	1,700	March.....	7,431	949
February.....	3,831	1,228	April.....	8,041	812
March.....	5,759	1,655	May.....	8,447	936
April.....	7,156	1,238	June.....	8,812	819
May.....	5,945	1,326	July.....	9,626	793
June.....	5,301	1,300	August.....	11,511	1,083
July.....	6,728	916	September.....	11,621	2,098
August.....	7,477	1,038	October.....	6,952	2,366
September.....	6,097	1,479	November.....	6,338	2,908
October.....	4,194	2,169	December.....	4,507	3,579
November.....	5,265	3,966			
December.....	4,256	2,943			
1941			1942		
January.....	6,221	1,127	January.....	5,877	1,488
February.....	4,434	1,023			

¹ Count covers only Jan. 16 to 31.

From Monthly Border Count Reports, issued by U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, based on data supplied by California Bureau of Plant Quarantine and Arizona Commission of Agriculture and Horticulture.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION

Mr. ARNOLD. Is the committee correct in understanding the existing vocational education program fails to recognize the facts of rural-urban migration, in allocation of funds?

Mr. TAEUBER. I am not sure that I am in a position to answer directly to that point. We are aware of the fact that a large share of the effort of the agricultural vocational training is directed to keeping young persons on the farm.

At the moment our Bureau is engaged in some cooperative studies of the Georgia vocational educational program in which we are exploring the extent to which that system will need to provide training activities for those individuals who cannot be absorbed on farms in that State. We have had inquiries and requests, for instance, from

a number of other vocational education State bureaus looking toward that same situation.

On the other hand, the distribution of vocational education training centers indicates they have been able to reach some areas from which migration has taken place in large volumes in the past and probably will again in the future.

Mr. ROGERS. In the report made last summer, quite a few of the States expressed the need for vocational training in rural areas for jobs that would be found in urban places, anticipating that there would be continued migration.

Mr. ARNOLD. Has the defense training program touched economically submerged groups in agriculture to any significant extent?

Mr. TAEUBER. We have asked that same question of the Office of Education, and from the information which they have supplied us, I would say that they have not yet touched those areas or groups to the extent to which they might, and perhaps would need to, if we are going to utilize that man-power efficiently.

Mr. ARNOLD. As you know, agricultural migrants in some areas are provided with temporary housing, mobile or stationary, by the Farm Security Administration. What do you think of the proposal to provide migrants of rural origin temporary housing in or near large cities, while they are receiving industrial training or seeking war jobs?

Mr. TAEUBER. It seems to me that in the present emergency in which we shall need to tap sources of labor that will require a good deal of training, we shall have to find ways and means of meeting that situation, of getting them to the centers and finding some way of assisting them during the period of training.

Mr. ARNOLD. Would you recommend any other type of assistance to rural migrants seeking war jobs?

Mr. TAEUBER. The policy of some areas of establishing training centers, providing some such plan is developed in order to meet the subsistence needs during the period of training seems to be a possible alternative. This would be training them somewhat nearer the source; we might find the employment to be in areas rather remote from that source.

Mr. ARNOLD. What is the Department of Agriculture doing to transfer surplus farm population to areas of farm labor deficiency?

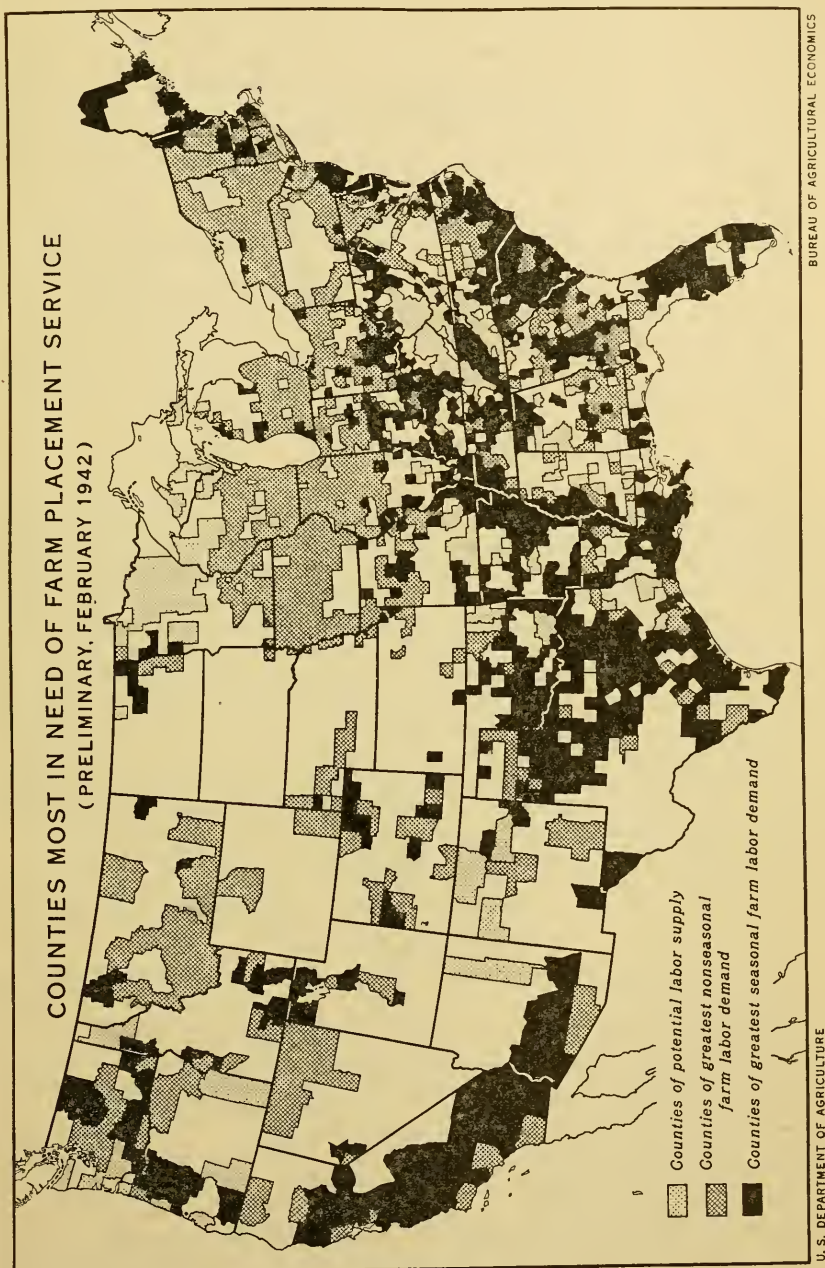
Mr. TAEUBER. Going back to what Mr. Rogers said, the Department of Agriculture through the various local committees is attempting to bring that situation to the attention of the Employment Service, which is the agency that is equipped to facilitate such transfers.

Mr. ARNOLD. That is all the questions I have. Does anyone else have a comment to make on those questions?

Mr. SMITH. Mr. Congressman, we might present a map which contains some information, which has a bearing on this last topic, and quite a number of topics that have been discussed.

The counties with light dots are the counties with potential labor reserves that might be drawn upon for use in agricultural areas of greater production, and for use in other phases of the war effort, including war industries.

The counties with cross-hatching are counties where the farm-labor requirements are great and appear to need attention, the requirements



being primarily for long-time workers, year-round workers, and the counties in black are counties where farm labor is a problem but where the requirement is largely for seasonal workers.

Now the counties in black are the ones that would have some bearing on the question just discussed. I might say that this is a map which the Department has been preparing to give to the Employment Service. It is just a part of our assistance to the Employment Service, making available to them all the information we can obtain in the Department, which has a bearing on farm-labor employment problems.

Mr. TAEUBER. I believe we should also add that that map represents a preliminary effort which has not yet been checked by reference to the problem in the respective States.

Mr. SMITH. Further checking in the field will be necessary.

Mr. ARNOLD. Would you want to submit that map for the record at this point or do you need it?

Mr. SMITH. We can submit a similar map, if you care to have it. (Map was submitted and appears on p. 10857.)

INFANT MORTALITY

Mr. BLACK. I might state that these areas in black in Arizona and New Mexico don't look very large, but the infant mortality average rate for the States of Arizona and New Mexico is over 110 as compared with around about 50 or 60 in our congested areas shown here in the southern Appalachian. That means in portions of Arizona and New Mexico, we have had a degree of congestion of population of which the American people are largely ignorant. In spite of that congestion—and I might say a good many of the people in those areas are Spanish-Americans—there was a demand for importation of 20,000 Mexicans from across the border last year.

Mr. SMITH. Mr. Congressman, we would like to have the privilege, if we submit the map, to also submit some explanation of it, and we submit it with the qualification that has been mentioned, that it needs some further refinement in the field.

(The following explanatory statement was submitted with the map:)

COUNTIES MOST IN NEED OF FARM PLACEMENT SERVICE

(Preliminary, February 1942)

The accompanying map represents a preliminary effort to point out the counties in the United States which are most in need of the facilities of the Farm Placement Service, because of (1) high seasonal farm labor demand, (2) high nonseasonal farm labor demand or (3) the presence of a potential labor supply. By a "potential labor supply" is meant a considerable volume of labor on farms which is unemployed or is ineffectively employed, and presumably could be recruited for employment in war industry or in other farming areas.

It should be pointed out that some counties may require farm-placement facilities both because they use a large amount of labor during certain months and because they have large numbers of underemployed workers during other months. In other words, they are areas both of demand and of potential supply. Some of the Mississippi Delta cotton counties, for example, would fall in this class. On the map it was not feasible to indicate such counties separately.

Since this map is based in the main on data relating to 1939 from the 1940 census, it is obvious that it requires checking by persons thoroughly acquainted with recent developments and local conditions not adequately reflected in the census.

Further analysis and refinement of available data may show that some counties not designated on the accompanying map should have been included, or that others now designated should be eliminated.

I. PROCEDURE IN SELECTING COUNTIES OF GREATEST LABOR DEMAND

The basic factors used in the selection of counties were as follows:

1. *Estimated number of days hired per 100 acres of cropland.*—The total wage bill for each county, as reported in the 1940 Census of Agriculture, was converted to a figure representing the number of hired days by dividing the wage bill by the wage rate for the State, per day without board, as reported by the Agricultural Marketing Service for July 1939. (The Agricultural Marketing Service reports wage rates only on a State basis.) The resulting total number of days hired per county was divided by the total acreage of cropland harvested in 1939 (as reported in the 1940 Census of Agriculture), and the data were converted to a per 100-acre basis. The counties were then grouped in six classes.

2. *Seasonality of hired labor demand.*—The 1940 Census of Agriculture, in addition to reporting the total wage bill per county, reported the total dollars paid out to (a) laborers hired by the month, (b) laborers hired by the day or week, and (c) laborers hired on all other bases, including piecework and contract work. The percent of the total wage bill paid to labor of the three types was calculated for each county.

The counties were thrown into a twofold classification, viz, those in which 34 percent or less of the total wage bills was paid to month hands, and those in which more than 34 percent went to month hands.

3. *Size of county.*—The size of the county, in terms of total acres of harvested cropland, was taken into account. Counties were classified in three groups: Those having less than 4,000 acres of harvested cropland, those having from 4,000 to 125,000 acres of harvested cropland, and those having 125,000 or more such acres.

Final classification of counties.—Counties excluded were (1) those having less than 4,000 acres of harvested cropland, (2) those reporting fewer than 50 days of hired labor per 100 acres of harvested cropland, and (3) those having from 4,000 to 125,000 acres of harvested cropland, reporting from 50 to 99 days of hired labor per 100 acres of harvested cropland and paying more than 34 percent of the total wage bill to month hands.

Counties included were (1) those reporting from 50 to 99 days of hired labor per 100 acres of harvested cropland which paid 34 percent or less of the total wage bill to month hands and had 4,000 acres or more of harvested cropland, and (2) all counties reporting 50 or more days of hired labor per 100 acres of harvested cropland which were not eliminated because of size.

Among the counties included, those in which 34 percent or less of the total wage bill was paid to month hands were designated as having the greatest seasonal farm labor demand; those in which more than 34 percent of the total wage bill was paid to month hands were designated as having the greatest nonseasonal farm labor demand.

In the final classification of counties other special factors were taken into account. For example, in the selection of counties in the Appalachian Mountain area the extent of self-sufficient farming (based on data in the 1930 and 1940 censuses of agriculture) was considered. In some cases counties were either excluded or included because of special knowledge of the area, as, for instance, when it was known that a county which, on the basis of the factors listed above, would have been excluded, possessed a significant acreage of sugar beets or other specialized crop.

II. PROCEDURE IN SELECTING COUNTIES OF POTENTIAL LABOR SUPPLY

Because none of the 1940 data were available for all counties, it was necessary to use a number of factors. Where 1940 census data were available they were given preference. The basic factors used were:

1. *Low farm income*, including counties for which the 1940 census reports show a difference of at least 1,000 between the number of farms reporting gross incomes of \$600 or less, and the number reporting that the operator worked 100 days or more off the farm. (In the Northern States the income limit was set at \$1,000.)

2. Where 1940 farm income data were not yet available on a county basis, a gross farm income of less than \$600 per person engaged in agriculture, based on the 1930 census was used, provided the county had:

3. *Increases in rural farm population, 1930-40.* Counties which qualified under either 1 or 2 and had an increase of 15 percent or more in the rural farm population, or of 10 percent in the rural population, were included. (Rural farm population data for 1940 were not available for all counties.)

4. *Counties including cities of 100,000 or over and those immediately adjoining such counties were excluded.*

5. In the Pacific Northwest the counties which had a large number of immigrants during the 1930's, as revealed in a special survey made by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics were included. All of these counties also met the requirement of an increase of at least 15 percent in the rural farm population between 1930 and 1940, as well as a minimum rural population of 10,000 in 1940.

TESTIMONY OF PANEL FROM UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, WASHINGTON, D. C.—Resumed

Mr. ARNOLD. These questions on farm machinery and mechanization are for Mr. Sherman Johnson, head of the Division of Farm Management and Costs, Bureau of Agricultural Economics.

AREAS WITH INCREASED PURCHASES OF FARM MACHINERY

Can you indicate in what farm areas there are increased purchases of farm machinery?

Mr. JOHNSON. Increased purchases of farm machinery? Do you mean for 1941, Mr. Congressman?

Mr. ARNOLD. I should think so.

Mr. JOHNSON. Of course, the situation has changed very decidedly since November, as you know, because of the limitation on the manufacture of new machines. That limitation is down to 80 percent of 1940, that is, 80 percent of the average of all machines manufactured in the year 1940 is all that is permitted to be manufactured for sale in 1942. In 1941 machinery sales were running something over 20 percent above 1940.

Mr. ARNOLD. You are answering my second question. The first question was in what farm areas there have been increased purchases of farm machinery?

Mr. JOHNSON. I am sorry. I was trying to give a little background there.

Mr. ARNOLD. Answer in any way you wish. Tell us what areas.

Mr. JOHNSON. Machinery sales have been running highest for the entire country in the Midwest area in the Corn Belt, and stepped up very materially in the eastern Great Plains area, that is, that string of States beginning in North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, last year, because on the whole they had a very good crop last year in comparison to what they have had over the period of the last 10 years.

Their sales had been running very low because of these relatively poor crops, and so their machinery inventories today, despite heavy purchases in 1941, are probably poorer in relation to the national total than they are in the Corn Belt.

In the Midwest and some areas of the Pacific coast are probably the best equipped farms, and over a period of 4 or 5 years they have had the heaviest purchases of machinery.

Mr. ARNOLD. I wonder if the farm program had anything to do with that heavier purchase of equipment?

CORRELATION OF FARM INCOMES AND MACHINERY PURCHASES

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, I couldn't answer that question directly. Insofar as the farm program increased farm incomes, yes, it did, because there is very close correlation between the income to farmers

in a given year, and machinery purchases in the succeeding year, especially.

Mr. ARNOLD. I have in mind one of my own tenants. He used to subrent some grain land in the bottom to two or three other tenants, but under the farm program he bought himself tractor equipment and displaced those men who were farming with horses.

Mr. JOHNSON. I couldn't say how common that is.

Mr. ARNOLD. Of course, those tenants that he displaced had ground of their own, but they were farming some on my farm in addition.

Mr. JOHNSON. I think perhaps it should be said that the development of the small general-purpose tractor equipped with rubber tires has made it a more flexible machine and it has made it possible to travel great distances.

It has made it possible for an individual operator to farm larger areas, and especially to farm tracts not adjacent to his own farm.

Mr. ARNOLD. Are these areas, where there has been the most measurable increase in the purchase of machinery, subject to a drain of farm labor?

Mr. JOHNSON. I think Mr. Rogers could answer the question with respect to relative shortage of farm labor better than I can, but it happens that these areas that are more fully mechanized, and have the best inventory of machinery are also relatively close to heavy concentration of defense industries.

I expect that because of that they have had a relatively higher drain of their farm labor. Would you like to supplement that, Mr. Rogers?

Mr. ROGERS. I think that is about correct. The information we have had coming in would indicate that. And in line with the discussion we had earlier about the qualifications of the boys on the farm for industrial production, the man who knows how to repair a tractor is the kind of man industry wants.

EXTENT TO WHICH MACHINERY COULD OVERCOME FARM LABOR SHORTAGES

Mr. ARNOLD. To what extent can farm machinery overcome farm labor shortages by replacing human labor?

Mr. JOHNSON. If machines were freely available there would be a great possibility of substituting machinery for hand-labor operations, but because of the fact that we are going to have and have as of today, limitations on the manufacture of new machinery, that margin of substitution is going to be limited much more than it would be if machinery were freely available.

Of course, the limitation order—I mentioned 80 percent and by some computations that becomes 83 percent, depending on how they figure different materials—the 80 percent order, of course, is an average. That doesn't mean that all machines are held down to that figure. Some are above 100 percent. That is true of hay balers and milking machines. There is some flexibility there.

Where a tractor can be used effectively, where you have sufficient area to use tractors, it is perhaps the greatest labor-saving machine there is, used with the complementary machinery that goes with the tractor.

Mr. ARNOLD. What has been the effect of priority orders upon prices of farm machinery, and have any price ceilings been imposed?

Mr. JOHNSON. I don't know of any price ceilings. I don't think there have been any, and I do not know that there have been any significant price rises.

Mr. ARNOLD. Has any plan been formulated for allocating farm machinery in accordance with the food for victory production requirements?

Mr. JOHNSON. Yes. From the standpoint of the limitation order, the different percentages permitted for different machines, as compared to 1940 are, for instance, milking machines, slightly over 200 percent above 1940—of course, dairy production being very important in the food-for-victory program.

Peanut pickers are up over 200 percent and maybe more, as compared with the average of 80, and pick-up hay balers, 353 percent.

INCREASE IN HAY BALERS

Mr. ARNOLD. Why the increase in hay balers?

Mr. JOHNSON. Because they are a labor-saving machine and, of course, roughage for dairy cattle is especially important. It is also a machine that is being introduced very rapidly.

Mr. BLACK. In this period of shortage of food for dairy cattle in the East, facilitation of the movement of hay is much to be desired, and, of course, it has to be baled before it can be shipped.

Mr. ARNOLD. I don't know that this is relevant, but I used to be in the hay-shipping business. I was in Kansas City yesterday and while there used to be 50 hay firms shipping alfalfa and other hay, I was only able to find 5, and only about 2 of them are doing any business. It must be that this hay is being baled and stored in the area where it is produced, rather than shipped.

Mr. JOHNSON. You are quite right, Mr. Congressman. The pick-up hay baler has come in and is used in the areas where the hay is used within that same area, rather than for shipment long distances.

I think over a period of years, it is true that the total volume of hay that has been shipped has decreased.

Mr. ARNOLD. Of course, there is evidence as you say, Professor, that there has been some increase in shipments because of droughts.

Mr. BLACK. It happens the Kansas area is one that has made the transition that Dr. Johnson has described.

Mr. ARNOLD. Do small farmers find themselves handicapped in the purchase of farm machinery?

USE OF FARM MACHINES

Mr. JOHNSON. They find themselves handicapped, of course, if they do not have the funds or the credit to buy machinery.

Now, on a good many farms, the machines that have been developed for farm operations cannot be used as efficiently or as effectively on a small farm as they can on a larger one, that is, considering the cost of the machine. It becomes pretty expensive to use it on the small farm.

Mr. ARNOLD. Are there increasing trends toward pooling funds for cooperative purchase of farm machinery?

Mr. JOHNSON. I think perhaps the Farm Security Administration—Mr. Maddox here represents it—has probably done more along that line than any other organization.

Mr. ARNOLD. Is the consolidation of farming units being speeded up by current purchases of farm machinery?

Mr. JOHNSON. It is difficult to get statistical evidence that has application over wide areas, to substantiate that. Now, in some areas, that is, over a period of years—from now on such figures would not be true because we don't have machinery enough for replacement needs—but if you take the development over the period of the last 10 years or so, you will find some evidences of that, especially in the wheat country, and to some extent in the cash corn areas. Those are the areas where you can get good statistical evidence of what is going on. There perhaps has been some of it in a good many other areas, but we do not have the statistical information.

FARM MECHANIZATION TRENDS

Mr. ARNOLD. Will you indicate briefly to the committee the difference between World Wars 1 and 2 as regard farm mechanization trends?

Mr. JOHNSON. Of course, in World War No. 1, the tractor was just coming into the picture, and it was a very crude and cumbersome machine and was suited only for operation on large farms. No specialized complementary equipment to go with the tractor had been developed. Of course, you had the large gang plows, but it was still confined quite largely to operations on large farms and tillage operations.

The situation today is that we do have very much more, of course, in the way of power machinery—by "power machinery" I mean motor power and complementary equipment to go with it—and it has been developed to the extent that it can be used on medium-sized farms and to some extent even on small farms. That mechanization process has gone on very rapidly since 1935, and one of the important elements, as I said a moment ago, was rubber-tired tractors. Those rubber-tired tractors are fairly new.

If the situation continues for any period of time we may find ourselves in very real difficulties for two reasons. One is the shortage of rubber for replacement needs as to those tires, and the other is that we are going to have a very much larger annual replacement demand for all kinds of equipment, because of the fact that we are mechanized to the extent that we are today.

UTILIZATION OF EXISTING MACHINERY

Mr. ARNOLD. Many people purchased tractors for the first time when rubber tires came in, because the steel tires packed the ground and made it more difficult to farm next year. In what ways can existing farm machinery be more fully utilized?

Mr. JOHNSON. Well, we can have further extension of cooperative use of machinery, much more custom work by farmers who have machines that are not fully utilized on their own farms, by an adequate machinery repair program. Of course, there is a repair program under way at the present time that was sponsored by the Department of Agriculture last fall.

Mr. ARNOLD. Have any community pools for repair or use of farm machinery been set up? Is the Department undertaking to organize any such repair shops or pools?

Mr. JOHNSON. The Department, as such, has not undertaken to organize any repair shops. A good many repair shops have been organized by vocational education units and local implement men.

The Secretary did send out instructions to the war boards to begin a machinery repair campaign and listed all agencies that could help in that type of program. That included the local implement dealers, the vocational educational units, and machinery manufacturers.

Mr. ARNOLD. One more question which you have answered before but you may have further comment to make on it. Will you comment on new uses of farm machinery at present?

Mr. JOHNSON. I can't think of anything that is really new. Of course, a good many of these things have been developed within the last 5 years or so.

We are having to make some adaptations. They are making some adaptations on combines in Texas, to use them as peanut pickers, and there will probably be a good many things of that kind that will develop in the emergency.

Mr. ARNOLD. Now, to Mr. Maddox, Director of Rural Rehabilitation Division of Farm Security, I have some questions on low-income families.

CHANGES IN FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM

Mr. Maddox, will you briefly describe to the committee the work of the Farm Security Administration in the food for victory campaign, and indicate the changes in the Farm Security Administration program which were occasioned by the war?

Mr. MADDOX. The Farm Security Administration, as you know, has had a program in operation for about 5 years, making loans and grants, giving farm and home planning and guidance as an aid to low-income families, as well as doing several other things.

One of the important aspects of that rural rehabilitation program of making loans and aiding families to plan their farm and home operations is to help them to produce a very high proportion of their food and feed requirements.

In other words, it is a home production program in great part, an attempt to get a diversification of the farmers' income as a means of adding security to his income. Our regular program has been in large measure along the lines that agricultural production is now being specifically directed because of the war program.

Greatly increased emphasis is now being placed on food and feed crops, as well as peanuts and soybeans and other items which are not directly food or feed crops.

However, some few months ago we thought it would be wise to change our loan program for the balance of this fiscal year insofar as it could be done with the limited funds we had, in order to put even greater emphasis upon producing the necessary war foods.

Accordingly, we brought forth a special "food for freedom" program in January, and it is just now being put into operation in the field, which program lays a great deal more emphasis on small loans to low-income farmers which will enable them to produce just those

food and feed crops and livestock products which are now so greatly sought after.

These loans will reach the same kind of farmer in general that we have been reaching with the regular rehabilitation loans; however, they will be smaller loans, so that the money will go further. They will be used perhaps to buy feed and seed and fertilizer in order to get the farmer started in production as rapidly and as cheaply as possible.

We have also streamlined, you might say, our loaning process or procedures, by eliminating quite a lot of forms to make it easier, not only for the farmer, but also for the limited personnel. That is another important change which Farm Security has made in its program as a result of the war situation.

Another and in an entirely different field is in connection with the migratory labor camps and our cooperation with the U. S. Employment Service. I should expect you might have questions on that later.

Briefly it is this: That the Farm Security Administration has increased the number of camps, particularly mobile camps, so that it can aid in bringing about a better utilization of the labor supply by encouraging it to shift from one area to another, or making it possible for it to shift and have decent housing conditions.

Also, we have recently entered into an agreement with the U. S. Employment Service in which they agree to place an office in each of the camps which we open. We agree in turn to work with them in determining the locations of the camps, and so on.

I can go into that in some detail, if you care to. It is an attempt to bring the U. S. Employment Service into direct and close line with the camps and hence, we hope, bring about a better utilization of the farm labor force.

We have also, in another connection, had to decrease certain types of construction of farm houses, particularly in connection with tenant purchase loans, and in connection with some undeveloped land which the Farm Security Administration has owned for several years. Practically all development has been put off until the emergency period is over, at least where there is any shortage of materials in the area.

Mr. ARNOLD. There are two questions that you might want to answer more fully. The first is: As we understand it, emphasis on certain types of production by low-income farm families will improve their health and efficiency and lessen the need for purchasing food. How much can these families produce commercially in the food-for-victory campaign?

The second is: Are Farm Security Administration clients and other low-income families supplying any part of the military demand for fresh food?

FOOD PRODUCTION BY LOW-INCOME FARM FAMILIES

Mr. MADDOX. Let me answer the last question first, because I think it is somewhat shorter and easier. The answer is yes. Present Farm Security clients, and other low-income families like them, are now supplying food requirements for the armed forces. That has been particularly true in the South, and as you know, there are a large number of Army camps in the South. The market down there has been

greatly expanded for fresh vegetables and for eggs, chickens, and milk. A great deal of attention has been given, on the part of Farm Security Administration, to increasing production among its borrowers of those items which are in local demand.

We have been particularly successful in the States of Georgia and Alabama in increasing the production of broilers, and practically all of the broilers and the eggs that are coming from the young chicks purchased by the borrowers last spring are being sold now to Army camps.

Mr. ARNOLD. How much can these families produce commercially in the food-for-victory campaign?

Mr. MADDOX. We have quite a series of calculations on that. It is a rather involved question.

In connection with this written statement much of the problem involved is covered. In general we think this is true: That probably in the Middle West and Northeast and the West, there can be rather extensive production on the part of those low-income farmers for commercial use through commercial channels. In the South there will also be an opportunity to increase production very greatly, but not such a large proportion of that will go into commercial channels. Instead it will supply the food needs of the families and relieve them from going to the stores and commissaries and competing with other buyers for purchased food.

Even in the South, at the same time there is considerable opportunity for increased production on the part of low-income farmers for commercial purposes.

If the committee wishes to take the time to establish some figures for the record, I think I could answer your question more specifically than I have.

Dr. LAMB. Wouldn't you say that was pretty well covered in your paper?

Mr. MADDOX. The total production figure is rather well covered. The amount which could be produced for sale is not so well covered. I might go through just a few figures here.

PRODUCTION GOALS FOR LOW-INCOME FARM FAMILIES

I might say that 802,000 low-income farm families is the number that has been arrived at that we think could be reached by a loan and guidance program of the general type which we now have experience in and have been operating for several years. There are a little over 2,000,000 low-income farmers in the country who could produce food for victory and we think 802,000 could be reached relatively quickly, that is, this year and next year, if funds were available. I will give you a few figures as to what the 802,000 might be expected to produce for sale:

About 1,440,000,000 pounds of milk.

About 501,000,000 pounds of pork and lard.

About 36,000,000 pounds of chickens at live weight.

About 145,000,000 dozens of eggs.

About 1,974,000 bushels of soybeans.

About 4,477,000 bushels of peanuts.

I also have figures on truck crops, most of which are not very important. Tomatoes are an item for which there is a rather great

need. We estimate 5,086,000 bushels of tomatoes might be produced by these 802,000 families.

These are items in which substantial increases are demanded by the present Department of Agriculture production program. The figures I gave represent purely the amounts that the 802,000 low-income farmers would produce for sale.

In the written statement you will find the percentages of the total which could be produced by these families, including that which they consume for home use.

Mr. ARNOLD. To what extent has the Farm Security Administration helped small farmers to consolidate their holdings with adjoining farms, to make more effective the size of the producing unit?

TENANT PURCHASE PROGRAM

Mr. MADDOX. I would say that outside of the tenant purchase program, which is a program of making loans to selected types of tenants with which to buy a family-type farm, not a great deal has been done by Farm Security Administration along the lines you mention.

Ordinarily we make loans to a man who has a leased farm owned by a private landlord. About 75 percent of the loans of the Farm Security Administration are to tenants, and the greater amount of funds which we have is not used for land-purchase loans.

Just recently we have, however, started a bit of experimentation to help those groups of small owners whose farms were in the eastern area of the country, and running 20, 30, or 40 acres, where perhaps in order to have a full-time farming unit he may need twice that much. We have set aside this year approximately \$6,000,000 to be used in the way of loans to the small owners for the purpose of aiding them to increase the size of their units and bring them up to a family type of farm. In no instance do we make a land purchase loan or a rehabilitation loan to enable them to carry on larger than family-size operations.

Mr. ARNOLD. Is that in areas where the land has not increased much in price?

Mr. MADDOX. Yes, it is, and there is particular opportunity for this type of loan I have just mentioned in congested areas such as the southern Appalachian area, eastern Kentucky and Tennessee, and parts of North Carolina.

If there is this increased migration, there is opportunity for families left behind to obtain a farm on which they may support themselves with a decent standard of living.

Mr. BLACK. May I ask if the funds you now have available are sufficient for that?

Mr. MADDOX. I would say they are just a drop in the bucket.

Mr. BLACK. Couldn't you arrange to handle it by leasing this land for the time being?

Mr. MADDOX. To a certain extent, yes. Some of that has been done. On the other hand, up until recently, while there has been some evidence of out-migration, there was not very much opportunity in these areas, where the need for the larger-sized unit was greatest, to lease additional lands.

There is also the problem involved, particularly in the southern Appalachian and Ozark and the Lake States areas, that there is a great deal of land improvement which is needed when you take over an additional 20 or 30 acres, a great deal of liming and phosphating and—particularly in the Appalachian and the Lake States—a great deal of clearing and draining. That is difficult to do if you have short-term leases. It is an expensive operation and an owner is usually in no position to guarantee any compensation to the man leasing it.

TRENDS IN FARM RENTS

Mr. ARNOLD. What are the present trends in farm rents and the displacement of farm operators?

Mr. MADDOX. Congressman, I have no recent information on that question, that is to say, no information within the last 6 or 8 months particularly pertinent to it. Before that time there had been a rather noticeable rise in rents, rather general, but being greatest, of course, in the good-land areas of the country.

In other words, if we think of the period of the last 6 or 8 years, up to say 8 or 10 months ago, the Corn Belt, the Middle West in general, was an area of rising rents, and the Mississippi Delta area from southeast Missouri to the coast was an area of rising rents.

Since the outbreak of war, there has been some increased movement of farm workers to urban areas or small towns. My guess is that the trend may have been reversed, that there may not be such competition for farms as heretofore, but I do not have recent figures on it.

EFFECT OF RURAL HEALTH DEFICIENCIES

Mr. ARNOLD. Will you evaluate rural health deficiencies as a deterrent to farm operations?

Mr. MADDOX. We have found in the Farm Security Administration rehabilitation program that that is one of the very important factors which has to be dealt with in rehabilitating a family. Poor health is, in a surprisingly large number of instances, a cause of the family being down and out, with low income and poor productive ability. In order to increase their income it is necessary to improve their health.

In this statement, if you will allow me, I could pick up a sentence or two which bears particularly on that question.

In 21 typical counties in 17 States, we made physical examinations of the members of the borrower families in these counties—11,497 people involved were examined.

These examinations were made in cooperation with local physicians, oftentimes with the cooperation of the medical college or school in the State involved.

We found an average of $3\frac{1}{2}$ defects in existence for every member of the family. Poor teeth and tonsils and need for glasses, or some kind of corrective treatment of eyes, were very important and common ailments.

We found a great number of hernias. In this particular survey, $8\frac{1}{2}$ percent of the heads of families had hernias, 60 percent of all children had defective tonsils and 55 percent of the wives in white families were suffering from childbirth injuries.

Every indication we have had, as a result of these surveys and from our experience, has, I think, surprised us all, showing that health is a tremendously important thing, and that these low-income people are in general in extremely poor physical condition.

Mr. ARNOLD. I have three more questions. We will have to move along. I want to give Professor Black half an hour or whatever time he requires.

FARM LANDS TAKEN OVER BY GOVERNMENT

Is it your impression that good farm land is being taken over by the Government for military grounds and construction?

Mr. MADDOX. I am not familiar with that as a general proposition, but I am quite certain there are certain areas in which very good farm land has been taken over for plant-site construction.

Mr. ROGERS. May I answer that a little more fully? The plant site board and the group in the War Department who handled the location of camps, check all the sites with the Department of Agriculture. We give them information as to the character of the land and they give that proper consideration. In quite a few instances they have relocated plants because of the good quality of the land first selected.

However, there are other factors that bear more weight than the question of land, so the answer is that in some cases they have taken good land after they have considered these factors.

Mr. BLACK. When did that program begin—handling it that way?

Mr. ROGERS. It was in operation at least as early as last August, and I would say the cooperation has been increasing since that time.

Mr. BLACK. The point is that previous to that time there were some cases in which it was not considered?

Mr. ROGERS. There were quite a few instances, I have heard—I was not in the Department at that time. There was quite a bit of dissatisfaction.

FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION BORROWERS TEND TO REMAIN ON FARMS

Mr. ARNOLD. Do you have any evidence on the abandonment of farms by Farm Security Administration clients who are seeking jobs in war industries? And, what can the Farm Security Administration do to assist workers of rural origin in finding jobs in war industry?

Mr. MADDOX. We don't have the type of evidence there that we should have. On the basis of what we have, however, there seems to be as yet very little movement of Farm Security borrowers away from farms into towns or cities.

For instance, during the last 6 months of 1940, on the basis of monthly reports, which were obtained from our county supervisors, we find that less than 1 family out of 25 moved to a town or city during that period, and during the last 6 months of 1941, even fewer of those Farm Security families abandoned their farms and moved to towns or cities.

We have also a question in connection with this monthly report which gives us a bit of information as to the migration of farmers on adjoining farms to these borrowers, and we find that only one in 23 of

these farmers living on adjoining farms moved to a town or city during the last 6 months of 1941.

So I would say, on the basis of the best information we have, that the movement does not appear to be very great.

Mr. TAEUBER. Isn't it correct too, that, even before the present increase in employment possibilities, you have had some Farm Security borrowers leaving your farms to go into other employment?

Mr. MADDOX. That is right.

Mr. BLACK. However, 1 in 25 in 6 months, means 8 in 100 in 12 months.

Mr. MADDOX. Yes.

Mr. BLACK. That is quite a few.

Mr. MADDOX. And I think we might expect some increase in that number.

Mr. ARNOLD. We want to have Mr. Black now for any comments on the previous testimony or speakers, in addition to making any remarks of his own.

Mr. BLACK. You haven't any questions to ask me?

Mr. ARNOLD. You have submitted a paper which we shall include in the record at this point. I have not any prepared questions.

(The statement is as follows:)

STATEMENT BY JOHN D. BLACK, PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS, HARVARD UNIVERSITY, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

THE WORK OF THE FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

One of the principal reasons that I am glad to appear before your committee and discuss this general problem of the small and low-income farmers in wartime is that some fellow laborers with me in the field of public policy have recently taken an unfortunate and mistaken position on the subject, declaring that the appropriation for the work of the Farm Security Administration should not be made in wartime. I am referring to the statement made by the Brookings Institution. One can understand how this mistake could have been made. The Brookings Institution has no one on its staff now who is working upon agricultural problems, except very incidentally. It never has given any attention to the work of the Farm Security Administration. Its last serious publication on agricultural problems had to do with the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, and bears the date of 1936. I was one of three of the authors of that book.

It happens that during the past year I and an associate at Harvard University, Dr. Charles M. Hardin, have been privileged to spend, under a grant of assistance from the Rockefeller Foundation, 8 months out in the States, mostly in the South and West, making a study in the field of the actual work of the Farm Security Administration and some other related Government activities relating to agriculture. We visited county offices, studied farm and home plans and office records, and went out among the Farm Security Administration borrowers. We interviewed State and regional staff members at their offices and looked over reports of their work. Also during the past 2 years I have had one young man devoting a good part of his time to studying the loan program of the Farm Security Administration, some of this time in the field. His report of 300 pages is on file in the Harvard Library. Besides, for nearly 4 years now, we have been holding weekly graduate seminars in our school of public administration on problems in agricultural policy, of which a considerable number have been devoted to Farm Security Administration questions.

ERRONEOUS ASSUMPTIONS BY BROOKINGS INSTITUTE

The Brookings Institution apparently made the very obvious mistake of assuming that the Farm Security Administration program is simply one of providing relief for farm families with low incomes; and that in wartime with larger outlets for farm products at better prices no farm family should any longer need relief. It is true that the Farm Security Administration has provided relief

for several hundreds of thousands of families needing it; but it has done this, in the case of its standard loan borrowers, by making them more productive, through loaning them money with which to increase their livestock, build up their equipment, and improve their land, so that the farms will yield them a larger product and hence a better income. In a time when we were worrying about agricultural surpluses, we were inclined to think of such efforts mainly from the point of view of relief. That phase of it is now more largely incidental, although we must never forget that these low-income families are rearing a very considerable share of the young men and women who will help us to win the war if it lasts several years, and it is important that these young people be well fed and cared for while they are growing up. Our major immediate concern now is with the increased productivity of the families and farms worked by these low-income families. At present, they are not very productive workers; they have too limited resources. We must work out ways in which they can contribute much more nearly their proportionate share to the total war effort.

Another phase of this subject which is often overlooked is that the Farm Security Administration program is essentially the production and land-use adjustment program for the small and low-income farmers. It does for them somewhat the same thing that the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program does for the larger commercial farmers. I do not mean to say that the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program does nothing to help the production of the small and low-income farmers but it does relatively little. By the very nature of its methods, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration cannot do much for the small producer. Its method of payment is so much per bale or bushel of commercial product. The low-income third of our farm families contribute scarcely 10 percent of our commercial farm output. To continue the Agricultural Adjustment Administration conservation and parity payments at this time and to cut off the Farm Security Administration type of assistance to the low-income groups would be the highest order of unequal treatment of unequals. Instead, the time is one in which the Nation should hasten to make up its past arrears of neglect of perhaps well on toward a million of these families who thus far have received little or no help from anybody. And the help they need now is not charity or relief, but help in making them more productive, by assisting them in obtaining the use of the means wherewith to become more productive.

AGRICULTURAL ADJUSTMENT ADMINISTRATION *v.* FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

It will be well at this time to contrast two differing ways of aiding farmers with their production that have been employed by the Federal Government since 1933. One is what may be called the general "blanket" approach, under which anyone who joins in the program gets so much compensation per bale or bushel, plus in some cases an increase in average price resulting from general reduction of output. This is the Agricultural Adjustment Administration method. The Farm Security Administration method, in contrast, singles out families one by one, finds out exactly what is needed to make them more productive, and then loans them money to enable them to be so. The first method calls for little supervision, but the improvements in production resulting are correspondingly low. The second costs more for supervision, but the improvements are very much greater. Per dollar of public money actually paid to farm families or spent upon them, our studies indicate that the Farm Security Administration method produces much higher returns in increased productivity and permanent benefit to the families. It would therefore be a very unwise course of action to cut down on this particular type of expenditure at this time.

REPAYMENT OF LOANS

In making such a calculation as just reported, one must take into account the circumstances that the Agricultural Adjustment Administration benefit and parity payments of the Federal Government to the farmers are none of them returned to it, whereas most of the Farm Security Administration funds, other than for administration and supervision, are scheduled to be repaid, and for that matter are being repaid at a very encouraging rate. The accounting method by which the loans and repayments are figured out appear to have mystified the American Farm Bureau Federation; but the only mystery in it is the same as exists in all government financing. Other folks have had difficulties with that too. The Farm Security Administration, I am sure, would be glad to have its finances arranged upon a revolving fund basis, so that what it collects on replacements each year could be used on new loans.

In our analysis we assumed that 75 percent of the standard loans would be repaid. We wanted to be very conservative. If the program is expanded to include well on toward another million who need help with their production, I expect the rate of repayment may not average quite so high. But even at 65 percent, it would be a cheaper way of getting increased production than direct outright subsidies with no returns directly to Government.

WHAT IS THE AMERICAN IDEA

There is another type of opposition to the Farm Security Administration program with which a person like myself finds it less easy to be patient. I encountered this while addressing one of the state meetings of one of our large farmer organizations, a year or so ago. I had been discussing the need for spreading our farm population and our farm resources around more evenly so that the low-income families would have a chance to be more productive. One of the members, who happened to be a teacher and farmer combined, rose and proclaimed himself as follows: "The professor and I hold very radically different philosophies. He wants to pamper and mollycoddle the poor weak members of our society. I am in favor of letting them fight their own battles. If they are any good to society, they will survive. I happen to be a biologist. He is an economist. I know the human race has got where it is by ruthless struggle for existence. That is the essence of the American idea, of the American way of life. Root, hog, or die is what has made us a great Nation." I regret to state that he was vigorously applauded by most of the farm organization members in the room.

Now the American idea stated in our Declaration of Independence and in our Constitution, and in the splendid utterances of all our great statesmen, has been almost the opposite of this. It has been equality of opportunity instead, giving to the child of the poor the same chance to be healthy, and educated, and to get started in life, as greater wealth affords to the child of the rich. Free public education and libraries were accepted a long time ago; and free public highways and police and fire protection. Then came public accident insurance; then in the last decade several forms of social insurance—old age, unemployment, and so forth. For millions of our families well on toward a third of the total utilities that enter into daily living are provided equally to all without regard to any ability to contribute to the public exchequer. Provision of health has been moving in this general direction—too slowly much of the time, it is true. There have been forces and interests which have retarded the progress of public health as compared with public education—during long decades when any rational person would have said that the health of a child was as vital to the welfare of the Nation as its ability to read, write, and cipher.

FIVE TYPES OF LOW-INCOME FARMERS

We can probably get as clear an idea as possible of the opportunities for usefulness awaiting the Farm Security Administration during the war if we consider briefly the cases of a number of different types of small and low-income farmers.

Type 1: A type which is very numerous, which may be described as follows: Not working enough good land where they are to be anywhere near fully productive, still able to work hard, but so far along in years that it is too late for them to make a fresh start in some other area or occupation. Few families with the head of the family over 50 to 55 years old should consider moving to another area or type of job. Readjustment is too difficult.

For these, building up their productivity where they are is the best solution. First of all, get them more land to work if it is in any ways possible—by lease or purchase. Also help them buy the additional livestock, tools, and supplies they need to work this land. If no more land is available, work out a farm plan under which they can increase their output for sale and for home use on their present acres, and loan them any amounts reasonably necessary to make such expanded output possible.

This is the type of case now handled by the standard rehabilitation loan.

The same general procedure should be followed for new loans, except that there are so many new ones that need helping in this way that the Farm Security Administration field staffs cannot possibly get to all of them except by short-cutting some of its procedures and leaving out some of the details of administration. The Farm Security Administration must learn to extensify its methods somewhat in the emergency.

Type 2: Families also short of land and productive resources, but not likely to expand their output much because too old or feeble, or improvident. About the most that can be done for such families is to loan them a little money to buy seeds, or fertilizer, or some baby chicks, or a sow, or perhaps a cow or a mule in some cases. They won't increase the wartime output much, but they can be helped to provide a better diet for their families.

In this emergency period, it is important that the Farm Security Administration field staffs consider carefully how much of its time it can now afford to spend on this type of cases. They could easily go too far with them.

Type 3: Families like type 1, also without enough land and other resources, but differing from that in that they are young enough and capable enough so that they are well advised to move out either into another farming area, or into another type of job.

The new job need not be in a war industry, as is too commonly assumed. Millions of workers are going to be needed before the year is over to replace men and women now in civilian jobs who will be drawn into production of direct war materials. The war agencies are estimating that 10,000,000 more workers will be drawn into direct war industries by the end of the year. Some part of these must be replaced by men and women drawn from the farms. They should come mostly from the farms in the congested farming areas of the Appalachians, the Ozarks and other parts of the South and Southwest. The Farm Security Administration should work vigorously with the United States Employment Service in helping to get the workers transferred to these urban employments.

There is also going to be a great shortage of farm labor in the major commercial farming areas of the Nation—in the Corn Belt, the great dairy regions, the fruit and vegetable areas. We cannot afford under these circumstances to have a man putting away with a mule and handplow on a few acres of poor land in the areas where the great bulk of present and potential Farm Security Administration borrowers are now found. There will be housing for new families in the commercial farming areas—the housing vacated by the families that have moved into war industries. For single men, there will be the accustomed provisions for such workers in these areas. There will be opportunities for some of these families as tenants in the new areas.

Here again the Farm Security Administration must take a vigorous part in collaborating with the Employment Service in getting these workers moved to the new areas. It may need to make loans to help them get moved. If the families are already Farm Security Administration borrowers, the Farm Security Administration will need to help them dispose of some of their property and settle their obligations to the Government.

There will be many cases in which young people in families should be encouraged to move when the parents are too old to move; others in which both can move together to good advantage.

I regret to state that the Farm Security Administration is not now giving evidence of handling this part of its job as vigorously as it should. It shows some tendency to want to hold onto its borrowers and keep them on the land even in very low-income areas.

Type 4: Families with land enough, but not enough livestock, equipment, and other capital to work it effectively. These cases are much more common than supposed. A recent study of 50 test demonstration farms using free the Tennessee Valley Authority phosphate fertilizers in Tennessee disclosed 11 that had increased their output and income very little as yet because they had been unable to get the necessary cattle to use the increased feed and forage produced. The Farm Security Administration is making a good many loans of this type in some sections of the country, but not enough to expand our agricultural production as needs be now. The Farm Credit Administration never has reached as many of such cases as it should. In general, it has not reached down to the smaller types of family-sized farms. Some agency must get to such farms now.

Type 5: Part-time farming families: Public credit agencies have commonly avoided making agricultural loans to families deriving a third or more of their income from nonagricultural pursuits. One cannot tell from the census data how many such families there are—surely a half million, and perhaps almost a million. Very many of these should be able to expand the agricultural part of their activity now. Others will contract it with longer hours and fuller employment off the farm. Aid to part-time farming families must therefore be given very cautiously; nevertheless it should be given where it leads to increased output

SOLICITATION BY FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION

The other day someone criticized the Farm Security Administration for "soliciting" such families as have been described by these five types. Have they forgotten that there is a war on? As a matter of fact, the effective prosecution of the agricultural war program requires that every single farm family be interviewed, and whenever any farm family, small or large, needs a loan to enable it to expand its production, it should be induced to get one from some agency, either a private bank, or from a production credit association or from the Farm Security Administration.

* * * * *

In the rest of this statement Dr. Hardin and I have undertaken to put together a systematic analysis of the work of the Farm Security Administration and of its role in the wartime agricultural effort. Our discussion falls into three parts. First, given the people involved, their characteristics, locations, training, aptitudes, and physical equipment, what contribution can they make to the country at war? Second, what are the characteristics of the Farm Security Administration program which make it well-fitted to help bring forth the maximum war effort of these people? And third, what changes might be made in the Farm Security Administration program in order for it more directly to center upon those ends which the present emergency puts first?

I. POSSIBLE CONTRIBUTIONS OF FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION CLIENTS AND OTHER LOW-INCOME FAMILIES TO THE WAR EFFORT

The most important aspect of this part of the farming population is as a reservoir of human resources. This is especially true since the highest proportion of the people involved are concentrated in the southeast where the ratio of human beings to resources of lands, buildings, and machinery is particularly low. Taking regions 4, 5, 6, and 8, which include all territory south of the northern boundaries of Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Arkansas, Oklahoma (except the Panhandle), and Texas (except the Panhandle), one finds that the Rural Rehabilitation Division of the Farm Security Administration had dealt with 637,836 cases of all classes—cumulative to the end of the fiscal year, 1940. Thus more than 45 percent of the total Rural Rehabilitation cases in the entire United States were drawn from an area where families are only one-fifth as well-provided for as upper-Corn-Belt families in their ratio to land, buildings, and machinery, according to the 1940 Census.

Besides the 700,000 standard loan families already reached in various parts of the country, any reasonable interpretation of the census data, after due allowance for part-time farmers with other sources of income, and other necessary allowances, makes clear that very far from all of the low-income families in agriculture have thus far been reached by the Farm Security Administration. Hence these people are a great reservoir of potential labor power that may be tapped for needed agricultural and industrial workers. Here we may note the report of the Farm Placement Committee of the Social Security Board Federal Advisory Council. In its recommendations, it stated:

"6. Particular attention should be given to the development of effective procedures for recruiting individual workers and whole families, with farm experience, now located in urban areas or in overpopulated rural areas such as the Appalachian Region and the Rio Grande Valley. Commonly the people living in rural areas such as indicated, do not realize the extent of the congestion and the full consequences of the prevailing low ratio of resources to population. Accordingly an intensive form of effort is required in such situations."¹

It is not anticipated that these areas of great overpopulation can be drained dry; it is maintained only that the more heavily these sections can be drawn upon, the more efficient will be the ratio of men to resources—in the densely populated sectors of the economy as well as elsewhere.

This leads to a second point regarding the human resources of the lower-income agricultural areas. It is well known that rural folk more than reproduce themselves; this is especially true of exactly these rural people in question. Big families among Farm Security Administration clients are the rule, particularly in the South and Southeast. The war may last 5 years; and the younger people in this pool must be thought of as growing up to take part in the war effort over the whole period that the war may last.²

¹ Report of January 9, 1942.

² At the moment, no reference is made to the highly important post-war utilization of this labor force.

Again considering the South particularly, the crowding of the population on the land has frequently forced the growing of cotton and tobacco, crops from which farmers could get the highest returns on limited acreages. Much new purchasing power is now opening up in the South that will assist a shift toward livestock and livestock products, dairying, poultry raising, etc. Over expansion is hardly possible in these lines, providing that the marketing problems can be solved. Thus it is estimated that as a long-time goal, milk production could well be raised in the South by 50 percent.

"If the farm and urban people of the South were to have only a minimum of the foods regarded as adequate by home economists, southern farmers would need to put 13 million more acres in food and feed crops and 23 million more acres in pasture."³

Of course, one of the greatest problems here is that of creating skills adequate to expand dairying, poultry raising, and the like among people in whom are ingrained quite different farming customs. But again, if we think of production over the whole wartime period, we may find that an extremely valuable part of the war effort may be the work necessary to create such skills, even though the full fruits of such a program might not be realized the first year or two.

To sum up thus far. In considering the possible contribution of low-income agricultural folk to the war effort, we have thought of them as reservoirs of labor at present disadvantaged by their unfavorable relationship to the physical factors of production. Partly, then, they can be drawn upon for labor elsewhere, labor which will be in part industrial, but more largely in commercial agriculture; partly their contribution will best be made when they are through increasing their production of food for home consumption as well as of surpluses for marketing, especially of foods in which shortages exist and which they are able to produce. In all events, this pool of inadequately employed labor should be thought of over the number of years that the war may reasonably be predicted to last.

Some of the many difficulties involved in making the best use of such labor are the deplorable inadequacies in the type of skills needed, resistance to change (of habitat as well as function), and the frequently low level of education among the people concerned. Further light can be thrown on some of these points in the discussion which follows as to the adequacy of the Farm Security Administration as the agency best suited to call forth the maximum effort from these groups.

II. POSSIBILITIES OF CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE WAR EFFORT BY THE FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION THROUGH ITS WORK WITH LOW-INCOME FARM FAMILIES

It seems defensible to assume that if the sectors in question of the agricultural population are to be efficiently drawn upon for the war effort, some administrative group will have to be employed. The heaviest concentrations of Farm Security Administration clients lie, as has been said, south of the Ohio River, and south of Missouri and Kansas. In these Farm Security Administration regions (comprising regions 4, 5, 6, and 8 as of 1940), the field personnel reported that average white borrowers were 44 years old, with five in the family, with education for the husband averaging 6.5 years and for the wife averaging 7.2 years. Negro borrowers averaged 47 years in age, with six in the family, and had gone to school about 4 years. Only a vigorously administered program, which emphasizes personal contacts with the farm people themselves by administrative personnel who "speak the same language," can effectively tap this human resource. With these remarks, let us consider the Farm Security Administration:

The Farm Security Administration is a going concern, with personnel already in the field and administrative procedures worked out. The county supervisors and their staffs are personally acquainted with many of the members of the agricultural groups in question; better acquainted than the workers of any other agency. The Farm Security Administration field personnel should be well-fitted to judge as to exactly which persons and which families can best be shifted out of their present areas, and which can best remain in place.

The Farm Security Administration is also in the best position to help develop the new skills needed.

"An old problem in the South is the need for the development of skills among farm people that will permit the expansion of dairy, poultry, and other industries, and relieve the congestion that now presses farms into more intensive cultivation than is good for either the soil or the people."⁴

³ Kenneth L. Bachman, in the Agricultural Situation, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, November 1941, p. 16.

⁴ Sherman E. Johnson and Robert C. Tetro, the Agricultural Situation, op. cit. November 1941, p. 3.

The Farm Security Administration has had several years' experience trying to establish exactly the agricultural skills now needed. To continue with the southern sections of the United States, the Farm Security Administration has made every effort to diversify the farms of these people by shifts toward milk, pork, and poultry production, home gardens, and the like, away from the undue emphasis on single cash crops which is one of the South's worst evils. Livestock has not been added to Farm Security Administration farms in one operation; usually a milk cow, a brood sow, and perhaps 50 hens, may be planned for purchase with the first loan. When the family has learned how to care for one cow, it is assisted in getting one or two more; and presently it may be looking for a market for some milk. At the same time, pressure cookers and jars for canning have been purchased with money lent by the Farm Security Administration—purchased to such an extent that H. A. Tolley has described the pressure cooker as "the artifact that is changing the present culture of the rural South."

The Farm Security Administration estimates that for the United States as a whole, milk production for home use on farms receiving loans increased from 60 gallons per person before entering the program to 78 in 1940; meat increased from 52 to 78 pounds per person; canned fruits and vegetables from 29 quarts per person to 53. Taking region 5, which includes Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina, the comparable gains were as follows: Milk, from 43 to 65 gallons; meat, from 47 to 77 pounds; and fruits and vegetables, from 13 to 40 quarts per person. These figures are presented because they deal with increases in physical quantities of the kinds of foods of which we are now attempting great national increases. These are not spectacular increases. The task of calling forth great agricultural surpluses from low-income agricultural classes is not simple and easy. Nevertheless, the figures bear out the conclusion to which nearly every observer who visits a broad sample of Farm Security Administration work will find himself coming; that there is a real possibility of considerable expansion of production among low-income farm people, given the proper approach.

The Farm Security Administration will also be in a position to help these farmers make the best use of the limited amount of farm machinery which will now be available. Its supervisors should know where farm implements are, and where they can be placed in order to secure their most efficient use. Here will come into good use the Farm Security Administration's experience with its community and cooperative services program, under which groups of farmers all over the country have been able to employ jointly a long list of implements that would have been out of their reach as individuals. These cooperatives provide mowing machines, binders, rakes, tractors, hay-grinders, combines, and the like. As is typical of the Farm Security Administration programs, such cooperatives combine low interest rates for the money involved with supervision by Farm Security Administration personnel.

Then there is the question of rural health. Society is extremely interested in the long run in the health of rural people, since it is only this group that much more than reproduces itself. Taking that part of the rural population with which the Farm Security Administration deals, its birth rates are higher than those of other agricultural classes.⁵ The health and medical service of this group is important. The Farm Security Administration has embarked on an ambitious program to improve the distribution of such services in the United States, working under agreements with State and county medical associations. About 100,000 Farm Security Administration families, according to the National Child Labor Committee, "are now receiving medical care at prices they can afford through group medical programs by local physicians." One sees the benefits of this program at their fullest in counties now supplied with at least one doctor where previously no doctor had been able to make a living. With the heavy drain on doctors for active war service, some such cooperative program seems more strongly indi-

⁵ Although coal miners' wives aged 35-44 years bore more children in 1929 than any other group (8.0), the farmers' wives in the same age group came close after them (7.1). At the same time, the net reproduction rate for the United States fell below the replacement level in 1930-35 (from 1.078 to 0.961); but, again, there is a marked difference in the reproduction rates between the rural and urban communities, those for both native white and Negro women being nearly twice higher in the rural communities with less than 10,000 population than in all urban communities taken together, and the rural-farm reproduction rates being higher than the rural-nonfarm rates. Moreover, considering the sectors with which the Farm Security Administration deals: "While the specific birth rate, or the number of children 5 years of age per 1,000 women aged 35 to 44 years, was 719 in 1930 for the rural farm population in nonproblem areas, it was 754 for those areas in which less than 20 percent of all farms were recommended for transfer to other uses, and 909 for those areas in which 60 percent of all the farms were to be transferred from agricultural uses." A discussion of this point may be found in Amanda M. Dalsay, Supervised Credit for Low Income Farm Groups in the United States, Ph.D. thesis, Harvard University, 1941, pp. 149-159.

cated even than before, in order to mitigate the tendency toward a disastrous maldistribution of medical services away from those sectors of the population from which the future American is mainly to be drawn.

Finally, there is something of extreme value in the present emergency in the mental habits of the Farm Security Administration. Its personnel is accustomed to think boldly and then to act vigorously. In a period characterized by unprecedented shifts in working populations, in kinds of employment, in manners and methods of production, and in ways of living, it would seem highly worth while to keep functioning at full capacity so useful and so strategically placed an agency as the Farm Security Administration. The Farm Security Administration will of course feel called upon broadly to redirect its own program in light of wartime needs. But its personnel will find these adaptations very easy to make.

* * * * *

In summary, we have been impressed by the pertinence of the qualifications possessed by the Farm Security Administration to the present needs. Chiefly, these qualifications include: first, Farm Security Administration acquaintanceship among farmers in low-income brackets; second Farm Security Administration experience in the sort of work now seen needed in calling forth the major contribution of such agricultural groups: the experience in dealing with the people involved, the training in developing the sort of skills which are now at a premium, and the advantage of having operated many cooperatives of the kinds which it now seems we ought to be actively spreading; and third, the familiarity with programs requiring broad adjustments.

Before closing this part of the discussion, however, two other points should be mentioned. First, it should be said again that the alternatives before us are not whether we shall have any such agency at all, but whether the Farm Security Administration or some other agency is best fitted to assist the low-income groups to their fullest war effort. We have already the report of the Farm Placement Committee of the Social Security Board, Federal Advisory Council. The fifth point in the committee's report indicates a useful role for the Farm Security Administration:

"5. The plans for the organization and functioning of the National, Regional, and State organizations must provide for the movement of workers within States and between States wherever and whenever necessary. Such movements are comparatively easy to arrange in the matter of itinerant and seasonal workers. The more difficult problems relate to year-round, regular workers, particularly if whole families are involved. Directing such movements will call for full cooperation of other agencies, such as the State Extension Services and the Farm Security Administration, with the employment service."

Moreover, the general tenor of the report indicates the breadth of the problem and implies, where it does not clearly call for, the vigorous cooperation of every available agricultural agency, cooperative, and farm organization.

The second point involves the question of economy. It is, of course, essential that the costs of governmental functions be reduced in inverse proportion to the proximity of those functions to the war effort. At the same time, there is another way of thinking about costs that should be stressed; that is, we should consider costs on the farms as well as costs to Government. We should consider the actual expenditures in physical materials involved as balanced against other uses of the same physical materials more directly in the war effort. Here there would seem to be many local materials on farms for which no very valuable alternative use exists, that may be put to good employment by the Farm Security Administration. Thus, trench silos or box silos would help the feed-storage problem in the South, especially in humid areas where hay is not easily cured.⁶ Other examples could be given, but in general, it may be said that the Farm Security Administration is again well equipped in its manner of experience for making these kinds of economies; the people with whom it has dealt have had to watch costs closely.

III. POSSIBLE REDIRECTIONS OF THE FARM SECURITY ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM IN THE LIGHT OF THE WAR EFFORT

Inevitably, agencies of the Federal Government have found or will find their programs in need of modification in the present emergency. While considering the qualifications of the Farm Security Administration for the war effort, one finds himself also thinking, of course, about the kinds of changes that might be made in the program. This opportunity is now taken to set forth some such possibilities.

⁶ Kenneth L. Bachman, op. cit., p. 19.

In general, the way in which the Farm Security Administration can serve best is in acting as the channel through which low-income farm folk may be drawn off into more productive employment, either in commercial agriculture or in industry. This is in line with the recommendations of the Farm Placement Committee already quoted. We have already noted the remarks of Kenneth L. Bachman regarding the perennial pressure on the land in the South and its prospective alleviation by other alternatives of employment incident to the emergency. If the war does have the effect of draining population from the congested areas to the fullest possible extent, it will in this respect serve the long-time interests of agriculture.

However, unless these possibilities are fully realized and implemented by determined administration, much of the potential gain will be lost. The Farm Security Administration needs to expand its effort along these lines, collaborating fully with the United States Employment Service.

The Rural Rehabilitation program will probably need to be adapted somewhat to the new situation. It is into the Rural Rehabilitation Division (R. R.) of the Farm Security Administration that new borrowers will largely enter, if the Farm Security Administration is expanded for the wartime food-production program. The objective of this war program is the greatest possible production of dairy products, poultry and poultry products, fruit and vegetables, soybeans, peanuts, and the like, while at the same time maintaining high production for home use. This may well call for some redirection of the general ends of the rural rehabilitation program. For example, farms peculiarly well-suited (even, let me say, at the expense of some soil conservation benefits) to produce soybeans or peanuts should probably concentrate on such crops as these. There should be less attention to showing increases in net worth and in building up of inventories, except insofar as the war food production calls for these things. In short, the planning of production and the servicing of production would be pointed nearly altogether toward to the maximization of the desired foods. Supervisors and their assistants ought to be spared all the paper work possible, for it is essential that they spend the maximum amount of time in the field.

It is difficult to overestimate the importance of carefully planned supervision to the success of the war food production program. In the first place, no one in the Farm Security Administration is satisfied with the present record of planning versus performance, i. e., the present amounts of various crops actually harvested as set over against the amounts stated in the farm plan. Sometimes mistakes have been made in the farm management, it is true; but most people in the Farm Security Administration would attribute unsatisfactory performance to failure of supervision—especially to the physical inability of supervisors to get around to borrowers at the critical times in the crop year: times of planting, harvesting, or some other special operation. If this has been true in the normal pursuance of Farm Security Administration work in peacetime, the problem will be aggravated now. For if the Farm Security Administration is authorized to expand and take up the entire slack in the low-income farming field, it will run into farming people who, at best, will be new to the program, new to the supervisor and Farm Security Administration methods, and at worst, will have been out of the program because they have been considered below the levels which Farm Security Administration has believed necessary for successful rehabilitation.

The so-called resettlement program will have an important place in the work to be done, whenever a situation develops calling for movement of families to a new area, either to function there as farm laborer families, or as tenants, or even owners. In the latter case, the tenant-purchase type of operation is called for. In some cases, where considerable groups of families need to be moved—for example, when lands are taken for military use—it will be necessary to take over especially large farms or plantations which come on the market and fit them to the use of these incoming families. The object will be to increase production on this land by providing good management and supervision. Any land thus taken over should be turned over to the new occupants on reasonable financing terms as soon as possible at the end of the war. There will be an especial place for such a program as just outlined in areas such as the Mississippi Delta, where new land is being brought into settlement. Another type of adjustment which the Farm Security Administration should be authorized to undertake in whatever manner is necessary is to help families remaining in congested areas to enlarge their farms by taking in land left behind as people are drained off into other employment. It will do no harm to mention that the Agricultural Adjustment Administration program may need to be revised if both these tendencies—the intensive development of the fertile Delta, and the general shift to livestock in the area of poorer soils—are to be fully exploited.

The Federal Security Administration will also need to adapt its cooperative service work to the new situation. The recently introduced county purchasing and marketing associations, although they may have important uses, should not be expected in all cases to solve the perplexing marketing problems that exist today. The first problem here is to get an administrative area and a cooperative set-up that corresponds to the natural marketing area. Again, regarding medical cooperatives, it may be necessary to abandon one of the cardinal principles on which the program has operated: Free choice for borrowers among cooperating doctors. With the need to save time and wear and tear on cars and equipment, some division of the territory among available doctors may be called for.

Finally, it would appear that on almost every point of the possible Farm Security Administration program, as outlined above, some fruitful cooperative arrangements may be made. For example, in the food production program, the relationships between Farm Security Administration and the Extension Service, particularly the county agent's staff, as well as with the agricultural defense boards, should be very close. Personnel of the Soil Conservation Service may help ascertain what conservation practices may be applicable after decisions have been made as to what land must be cultivated for the defense program. There should be the closest possible relationship between the Farm Security Administration and the Farm Placement Service of the United States Employment Service. Officials of the Farm Placement Service will know the labor needs in the various local markets and between markets, including both the character of the labor needed, and the amounts. The Farm Security Administration, on the other hand, should be the best agency for ascertaining just which of these needs can be met in the whole low-income farming sector.

TESTIMONY OF JOHN D. BLACK—Resumed

Mr. BLACK. All right; I can go ahead. There was a question asked me by Mr. Maddox about the possibility or advisability of using farm labor supplied from Central America or South America to deal with our shortages here.

Mr. MADDOX. Also women and youths.

UNDEREMPLOYMENT OF FARM LABOR

Mr. BLACK. I might use that as a starting point. I would not be in favor of any such program until we had fully exhausted the possibilities of using our own unemployed people and our own underemployed people.

Now, I don't know that we get the full significance of this underemployment. For example, I am not sure about the areas on that map. If you describe those areas as areas in which there is surplus farm labor, it is surplus in what sense of the word. Does that mean there are young people on farms that don't have enough to keep them busy or anywhere near it the year round, or that there are farm laborers in the territory that do not have full employment the year round? Is it unemployment in that sense, or is it underemployment in the sense that they have such a limited amount of good land and equipment to work with that they don't turn out very much in the way of production in the course of the year?

Now, it is this latter phase of it that is highly important and which is the real phase we are concerned with.

Someone asked the question about whether the Selective Service registration would not get at these people. It will get at the people who don't have jobs, or who hang around home and don't have very much to do, but it certainly won't get at the matter of unemployment.

You have asked about your local farm labor committees as an aid to handling this problem. I can tell you that the local farm placement committees are not going to tell you about underemployment. They don't know it exists.

I worked with farm placement work in the last World War in the State of Wisconsin, and we have sections in the eastern central part of the State where the population was quite largely Polish and Bohemian, where the prevailing rate of wage was \$25 a month and farms were small, and in other sections of the State the farms were large and the wages were \$45 or \$50, and when we talked about going up to the Bohemian section and getting people to help out they said, "Our boys are going to war and we are short of labor."

Now, we are trying to get peanuts grown in the South. You can't begin to get as much income from an acre of peanuts as you can from cotton. You don't put in as much labor.

The only reason cotton has persisted down there is that so many people need jobs that you have to put these crops in in order to give the people jobs. If you put in peanuts in place of one-third of the cotton, why, there won't be work enough for them.

THE SOUTH'S COTTON PROBLEM

Those folks, according to any proper adjustment of the agriculture of the South out of intensive cotton growing, are not needed down there. They ought to move into the areas where there is a deficit of agricultural labor, where labor is not fully employed at the present time.

We have set up, of course, an Employment Service to deal with that problem, and we have the Farm Security Administration helping out with it. But I don't believe the procedure that has been talked about this morning is going to handle that problem. I don't think you can set up an employment office 15 or 20 or 30 miles away which registers anyone who comes in and asks for a job, and get very much registration or very much movement of the people out of these areas by that means. You have to use some different technique than that. You can't rely on your local planning committee to do it because they wouldn't admit there is any surplus labor there. You have got to develop some procedure that will really get hold of these people and move them out into other jobs. You have to have other jobs ready for them. You have got to know where you want them to go and you have got to help them get there.

LABOR SHORTAGES FOR YEAR-ROUND EMPLOYMENT

This map you have before you shows all these cross-hatched areas. Those are areas where there isn't a shortage of labor now for the seasonal crops, but for general farm work the year round. That is the part of farm-labor problem that has been neglected most and is going to be neglected in the future. Supplying labor in the black areas, the seasonal areas is a kind of spectacular thing. You can bring in people from other parts of the country, Negroes from some section or Mexicans from Mexico. You can recruit a lot of boys and girls to do that kind of thing, but to get somebody to go out and work on the dairy farms and Corn Belt farms where they want year-round labor, that is another story.

You have got to get hold of families and year-round people for that, and the Employment Service is not now set up to handle that problem. It has got to learn to handle it this year, and it is going to have to go to those places where there is underemployment and get families and single people to move out and move into these other areas. Some-

one must find a place for them to live and help them move, and the Employment Service and Farm Security Administration have a real problem.

Some of those folks ought not to move into agriculture but should move in to opportunities in the city, and they have got to have help. They must have these opportunities presented to them, and jobs have got to be found for them individually.

Now, that is what I mean by saying that until we have fully exhausted our possibilities in the way of moving these people and thus taking care of our labor shortages, there isn't any need for any talk about moving in Mexicans or Puerto Ricans or folks from South America or the like.

It may turn out, if this war lasts until 1943 or 1944 or 1945, that the demands for the military output will be so great that not even using all of our own people out of these underemployed areas, using all our high-school boys and girls, closing down the schools for a month or two at critical periods, and the like—in spite of all that, we may not be able to handle the harvesting of our crops; and when that happens it is time to talk about bringing in these folks from Mexico first, and then from other areas, but it should be considered as something to be postponed and done as a last resort.

OPPOSES IMPORTATION OF FARM LABOR

We have to remember that if these people are brought in here and kept here it would lower our wage level and the general standard of living of all our agriculture. European countries faced with this same problem have brought in people. They have brought them in, but they have moved them out afterward.

My own judgment is that if we do bring in these people the Government should handle it by means of passports and visas so it could get them out again, and that it should stand the expense of it, and not leave them in this country as part of the general labor supply.

A good many years ago an American group went over to China to study possibilities of building banks along the Yangtze River as a way of preventing famines. The report said in part:

An expenditure of a certain sum of money would make it possible to support 10,000,000 more Chinese people in the valley of the river.

But the report ended up by saying

What for? Until the Chinese people learn some method of intelligent control of their resources, you don't help them any by increasing their hordes.

The same thing would happen if you accept the population of Puerto Rico. You have to help them with their sanitation and help them get their birth rate properly adjusted to their own resources.

I am not ready for any proposal for wholesale immigration of people from those countries. I think it is not a well-considered way of dealing with the problem.

This problem you are dealing with this morning, I think in a way might be summarized by—

Mr. SPARKMAN. Before you go into your summary, I wonder if I may ask one question? What about the idea or the system of granting furloughs from the services for farm boys to return to help out with seasonal crops?

Mr. BLACK. I think that can be worked out on an intelligent sort of basis without interfering with the military program. The details of it would have to be worked out very carefully.

Those who have studied the history of American agriculture know that the heavy immigration out of Europe onto our farms in the last century and early decades of this century had a great deal to do with maintaining low standards of living on our farms. Those people farmed according to low standards of living and helped maintain the low returns to the farms.

POSSIBLE SOUTH AMERICAN COOPERATION

It would be a lot more sensible, if we need more food, to make a deal with the South American countries to produce it down there, leaving the people down there where they produce it, than to bring them up here and ship them back again.

In those South American countries there are plenty of resources. They have not begun to develop their resources. If we want to do something we could help those governments in producing the things down there that we need in this country.

First, they could produce war products, and then agricultural products primarily of types that don't compete with our own production. In some of these countries, there is a real congestion of population. Puerto Rico is the real example. You might say we are being humanitarian if we permit large numbers of these people to come into this country to help us out and to stay here; but it has long been recognized that you don't help a densely populated country very much by accepting its immigrants. The folks behind fill up the gap, and there is just as much population pressure as before.

I wonder if we can't get a clearer idea of the possibilities of opportunities for usefulness awaiting the Farm Security Administration during the war if we stop and consider briefly a number of typical cases that are likely to arise?

TYPICAL CASES THAT MIGHT ARISE

This first one is of a type that is very numerous and can be described as follows:

Here is a man that is not working and hasn't got land enough to be anywhere near fully productive. The farm doesn't have enough resources to contribute to the war effort of this country.

Here is a family that is able to work hard but is rather along in years and it is too late for them to try to make a start in some other area and other occupation.

I doubt if many families with the head of the family over 50 or 55 years of age should consider moving to another area or taking a different type of job.

Now, for this type of family, and it is a very numerous group, the program which Mr. Maddox has outlined fully, the food for freedom program, the original rehabilitation program modified as he suggested it, seems to me a type of procedure that is right. They should be given the loans to buy seed and feed and fertilizer and equipment, and in some cases some livestock, so they can make their present acreage more productive than it is now.

I realize Mr. Maddox is cautious about talking about purchasing livestock because he knows you can't buy more dairy cows advantageously right now because you take them away from somebody else. But it is possible to start building up herds of dairy cows by taking heifer calves and rearing them and probably by the time the war is over we will need their products.

Now, I am going to talk about families that are also short of land and productive resources, but are not likely to expand their output very much, even with loans, because they are too old and too feeble and too improvident. I don't need to tell you there are a lot of folks like that.

What can you do for them? I say that you can make small loans to them to buy seeds and fertilizer and a few baby chicks and maybe a sow or a heifer calf, but this \$300 loan that Mr. Maddox is talking about is too big a loan for them, and in this emergency period we can't afford to be spending too much time of the Farm Security Administration with these people. We may do something but we should not go too far.

TYPE 3

My third type of family, like type 1, are also without enough land and other resources, but they differ from type 1 in that the families are still young enough and capable enough so that they are well advised to move out into another farming area or into another type of job.

I do not believe that we have tackled that kind of family vigorously enough. We have not developed our facilities for removing those people to the extent that we should. Some of those people should move into other farming areas, and I may mention that very frequently there will be houses waiting for them.

Many farms will have a house for a farm family that is vacated because there isn't anybody available locally. I know a farm family in south Wisconsin that spent \$300 repairing its tenant house to make it attractive and it is still vacant.

If it is single people that move, rather than whole families, you have the usual arrangements for taking care of single people on farms.

There will be many cases in which the young people should be encouraged to move when the parents are too old. There are others in which the young folks moving with the old folks make a combination that makes it feasible.

TYPE 4

Type 4 are families that do have land enough but do not have enough livestock and equipment and feed and fertilizer and other capital to work their farms effectively. These cases are much more common than supposed.

A recent study of 50 test demonstration farms using free T. V. A. phosphate fertilizers in Tennessee disclosed 11 that had increased their output and income but very little in the past 5 years, because they had been unable to get the necessary cattle to use the increased feed and forage produced.

The Farm Security Administration is making a good many loans of this type in some sections of the country. I spent 8 months with an associate at Harvard in the field, and visiting various different agencies, the Farm Security Administration more than others. We

talked with the local officers, the local staffs of the local Farm Security Administration; we went out on farms and looked over farm and home plans, and I know that there are sections of the country where the Farm Security Administration has done very effective work in helping these people to get more cattle.

Your best example of it would be in the better livestock areas of Kentucky and Tennessee. It is surprising the number of families that don't have enough cattle in order to make their contribution as they should.

Now, the Farm Credit Administration never has reached as many of these as it should. The Farm Credit Administration in general has not reached down to the smaller types of family-sized farms, and the Farm Security Administration has not reached up to them. There is some agency that needs to take care of these people now.

TYPE 5

My type 5 are the part-time farming families. I don't know how many there are in this country.

There are at least a half million, and there may be nearly a million. Very many of these should be able to expand the agricultural part of their activity now, but I am certain more of them will contract it when they get longer hours of work and better wages for employment off the farm.

I saw that fact demonstrated very effectively in New England. In 1937, when we had a pick-up in employment, a lot of part-time farmers who had purchased two or three cows, sold their cows and worked double shifts, long hours, one member of the family working days and the other at night, and that will take place this time. Nevertheless, this group should be worked with and some aid given to any part-time families that are in position to increase their output.

I read the newspapers occasionally, as the rest of you do, and I noticed someone the other day criticized the Farm Security Administration for soliciting such families as are described under these five types. I have a feeling that a man like that has forgotten for the moment there is a war on. As a matter of fact, the effective prosecution of the agricultural war program requires every single farm family be interviewed by somebody, and whenever any family, large or small, needs a loan to enable it to expand its production, it should be induced to get that loan from some agency, either a private bank, or from a production credit association or from F. S. A.

You can call that soliciting, if you want to, but it is the kind of effort you need, family by family, in this country.

I have other points that I can discuss here, but I don't want to use all the time. If you want to ask some questions, I had better save some time for that.

Mr. ARNOLD. Perhaps some of the members of the panel would like to ask some questions.

Mr. SMITH. Could I make one comment? I would like to suggest that the underemployed type of farm families I mentioned are not limited to the dotted areas on the map. We have many of them in a great many of the States, probably some of them in every State. The dotted area is not the only area where we have unemployment in agriculture.

Mr. MADDOX. I was wondering if Mr. Black would expand on this idea as to the mechanism that might be used to transfer these families from one area of the country to the other, that is, underemployed families.

MECHANISM SUGGESTED FOR REMOVAL OF FAMILIES

Take, for instance, the illustration of the family down in eastern Kentucky or the one in Congressman Sparkman's State of Alabama, who might better use its labor on a Corn Belt farm in Illinois or Iowa. The mechanics for making that transfer is the thing I would like to hear discussed, because I think most everyone would agree with you as to the need for that.

Mr. JOHNSON. Will you include also the transfer within the State of Alabama and the T. V. A. area, both the farm and nonfarm?

Mr. BLACK. I would think if the Employment Service had properly functioning offices in the Corn Belt where this labor was needed, that these would record families that wanted various types and descriptions of farm labor. That is one end of it.

Now, at the other end of it, if the Employment Service could be expanded in the underemployed and surplus-labor areas, so that it could get around to the various communities, so that all the communities would be reached—I know that in addition to the 1,500 local employment offices that the United States Employment Office has, it has about 3,000 part-time or temporary offices, where a man spends 2 or 3 hours a day or 1 day a week.

Now, another question is how you are going to get through to these families. I think maybe you have to do some footwork. Just putting a statement in the local newspapers isn't enough. You have got to talk to them. Publicity will help. Publicity on the whole is sometimes a little dangerous and stirs up the local people more than is necessary.

You work with the local people and talk with them and get their help and that will be more effective. All right. We spot these workers and get the information about them. The Employment Service should be able to put together this information and say "Here is a family that will fit in up there."

The question is how you are going to move them. I think in most cases they are going to need a little money to get moved. They haven't enough resources to go up there. I think the F. S. A. and Employment Service should work out a way to assist them in making the move.

Mr. TAEUBER. Mr. Black, it might be of interest to tell how we came to make that map. It was at the request of Employment Service, recognizing the importance of getting into these areas in the sense of low productivity, and finding some mechanism to do the kind of recruiting you are talking about.

Mr. BLACK. I know the Farm Security and Employment Service are pushing into this. I don't think they are pushing anywhere near fast enough.

Mr. MADDOX. If we could get by the difficulty of having that known as "resettlement," it might help a great deal.

Mr. SPARKMAN. How about calling it "replacement"?

Mr. MADDOX. That might help.

HIRED FARM LABOR

Mr. SPARKMAN. I am a little interested in looking over the counties on this map. I notice black shows counties of greatest seasonal farm labor demand. I notice every county in my district happens to be black. I wonder why?

Mr. SMITH. I can't give you the exact definitives, but the boys that marked the sections did it on the basis of the amount of money spent in those counties for hired farm labor.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Census figures?

Mr. SMITH. Census figures. The census shows how much was spent for day hands and week hands and piecework and regular month hands, and that is the basis on which they made the division. It doesn't mean that everything in the black would be seasonable. There would be a lot of year-round hands.

Mr. SPARKMAN. Of course, the reason I am taking my district, is because I am more familiar with it than any other. I notice every county in my district happens to be black. Of course, the principal crop there is cotton, and cotton is a rather seasonal crop. But I notice another county over here is white, De Kalb, right next to mine, which is a heavy producing cotton county, whereas Jackson, which is black, is a light producing cotton county. De Kalb is largely individual farms owned and operated by their owners, small farms generally. I wonder if that would account for that being white?

Mr. ROGERS. Yes. This was worked here on the basis of the census figures. To make this a little more realistic and giving consideration to a lot of changes which might include increased production here and there, no doubt they should be checked with someone who knows the distinction better.

Mr. TAEUBER. The distinction is based largely on the proportion of the total wage bill that goes to month hands. If one-third or more of the total wage bill went to other than day hands, it was included in the other category.

Mr. ARNOLD. I notice these three counties in southern Illinois. Those counties perhaps have the poorest soil down there.

Mr. TAEUBER. They reported more than the minimum number of farms with a very low value of products in 1939.

Dr. LAMB. I would like to ask Professor Black if there are any other comments he wishes to make?

Mr. BLACK. No; I think I have covered everything.

Mr. ARNOLD. We thank you gentlemen very much for coming here and for the fine contribution you have made to these hearings.

Dr. LAMB. I wish to introduce for the record several exhibits from persons who are not witnesses.

Mr. ARNOLD. They will be accepted.

If that is all, this committee will stand adjourned.

(Whereupon, at 1:05 p. m., the committee adjourned.)

EXHIBITS

EXHIBIT 1.—DAY CARE OF CHILDREN OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN WAR INDUSTRIES

REPORT BY KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF, CHILDREN'S BUREAU, UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

FEBRUARY 4, 1942.

The reports of the Women's Bureau and of the Labor Division of the War Production Board to this committee will describe the present effort to make greater use of women as a new source of labor essential to full war production. As this movement gains impetus with the acceleration of war production and with increased numbers of young men drafted into the armed forces, it will involve the employment of women who have never been employed before as well as those who formerly were in the labor market. It will also involve the employment of women in occupations new to them and the employment of women for longer hours and at hours to which they have not been accustomed. These developments will require widespread adjustments in the lives of the women workers, especially among those with family and home responsibilities. An urgent problem faced by many of these women is the provision of adequate care for their children. The increased employment of women immediately creates the need for measures to safeguard the welfare of the children of the community.

Children's Bureau conference on day care of children of working mothers, July 31–August 1, 1941.

Even as early as last spring there was considerable evidence of serious problems relative to the day care of children in certain defense areas, which led the Children's Bureau to call a conference on July 31–August 1, 1941, to consider problems of the employment of women as it affects the welfare of their children and the provision needed for the care of children whose mothers are at work. This conference was attended by representatives of various national and local agencies, both public and private, concerned with health, social welfare, education, and labor. Col. Frank McSherry and Mr. Charles Taft of the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services participated in the meetings. The Bureau of Employment Security was also represented. There was unanimous agreement in the conference as to the urgency of immediate measures to meet the need for day care of children in defense areas and for over-all community planning to make adequate provision for the children of women going into employment.

The conference recognized the extreme importance of the national defense effort and considered it imperative as part of this effort that family life be protected and that children should not suffer because of the various social and economic dislocations inevitably arising out of the defense program. The members of the conference emphasized that every effort should be made to safeguard home life and to provide programs for the care of children that will strengthen family relationships. The conference adopted 10 recommendations, the chief of which may be summarized as follows:

(1) In this period when the work of women is needed as an essential part of the defense program, it is more than ever a public responsibility to provide appropriate care for children while mothers are at work.

(2) Every effort should be made to maintain standards relating to the employment of women.

(3) The welfare of mothers and children should be given due consideration at every point in the development of employment policies relating to national defense.

(4) Mothers who remain at home to provide care for children are performing an essential patriotic service.

(5) Community plans for the care and protection of children of working mothers should include as many of the forms of day care as are required to meet the needs of children of all ages for whom such provision should be made.

(6) Individual counseling service provided as part of a unified community program should be available for mothers planning to enter employment or already employed. The object of this service is to assist parents in making plans which will safeguard family life and make adequate provision for the health and welfare of parents and children.

Action growing out of the conference.

The conference further recommended the appointment of four subcommittees to consider questions relating to Federal-State responsibility, community planning, standards and services for day care, and recruiting and training of personnel. The conference appointed an executive committee to carry out the recommendations of the conference.

On October 16, 1941, on the recommendation of the executive committee the Children's Bureau appointed a permanent advisory committee on day care to supersede the various conference committees and provide a more permanent basis for continuing their work.

Another action taken as a follow-up of the initial conference was the issuance on September 19, 1941, of instructions by the Bureau of Employment Security to its field offices relative to day care of children of working mothers. These instructions were accompanied by the recommendations of the conference called by the Children's Bureau and directed public employment offices to assist in furthering the recommendations by furnishing local councils of social agencies with information regarding plans for the employment of women in order to facilitate effective planning to meet problems growing out of this employment, by participating in unified counseling programs designed to assist mothers entering employment and by referral of job applicants who need assistance in the care of their children to appropriate agencies providing facilities for the care of children.

An important development growing out of the conference of July 31-August 1 was the setting up of an interagency committee known as the Joint Planning Board on Day Care of Children, composed of representatives of the Office of Education, the Work Projects Administration, and the Children's Bureau to coordinate the work of these three agencies in the field of day care.

The conference was followed by increased and widespread interest in the problems of day care and led to consideration by the Federal agencies with responsibilities in this field of the programs which they could undertake.

Employment policies in relation to home responsibilities.

The following statement of policy regarding the employment of mothers of young children was recommended by a conference of the Women's Bureau advisory committees held on January 22, 1942:

"The welfare of mothers and children should be given due consideration at every point in the development of employment policies relating to national defense. Although barriers against the employment of mothers with young children should not be tolerated, such mothers should not be actively recruited as a new source of labor for either training courses or employment until other sources of labor supply in the local community have been fully utilized. Where need is demonstrated for the employment of mothers with young children, or where in individual cases mothers seek employment, they should be placed on shifts which will make it possible for them to discharge their responsibilities for the care of their children with such supplementation from community facilities for child care as may be necessary. Every effort should be made to avoid the employment of mothers with young children on the night shift."

Miss Perkins, Secretary of Labor, recently made the following significant statement concerning the employment of mothers of young children:

"In this time of crisis it is important to remember that mothers of young children can make no finer contribution to the strength of the Nation and its vitality and effectiveness in the future than to assure their children the security of home, individual care, and affection. Except as a last resort, the Nation should not recruit for industrial production the services of women with such home responsibilities."

Proposals for the establishment of facilities for the 24-hour care of children or facilities operating 24 hours a day in caring for different groups of children should be weighed carefully. Where it is reported that such facilities are required in a community it may indicate the need for careful examination of employment policies, community resources, and other related matters, to determine whether alternative plans cannot be developed for the proper care of children of mothers employed in occupations essential to national defense.

Growing need for day-care facilities.

The need for additional facilities for day care of children and for coordinated planning in this field has become increasingly acute in areas where there is a concentration of war industries. The following brief reports are illustrative of the type of situations which local communities are facing.

The Office of Defense Health and Welfare Service recently reported:

"Nursery school problems in the industrial areas have been aggravated by the increasing employment of women, particularly in the airplane plants of Califor-

nia * * *. Often there remains no one in the home to care for the children. * * * Rarely is there a nursery school program in these communities of either a public or a private nature."

"In one California defense area a large aircraft plant in hiring of women is giving preference to the wives of men already employed at the plant. They have adopted this policy to avoid future housing difficulties, traffic complications, and the influx of additional nonresident persons. In order to provide supervision for the children of employed parents, the aircraft company has requested the Federal Government to establish nursery schools."

In another State it was reported that in communities X and Y:

"Many women are working either in the local mills or in a nearby town. They are leaving preschool children indiscriminately with neighbors or relatives * * *. The community is becoming concerned and has asked help to develop some protection for these children. One of the local mills has already added another nurse to its staff and is also concerned with this problem."

Community Z in this State reported:

"At present the community offers some type of day care to 225 preschool children in groups. Fifty-one school children receive after-school care. All present programs for both preschool age children are filled to capacity with long waiting lists and these cannot be expanded to any marked degree. Through questionnaires, seventy families of employed mothers requested day care for 145 children, 67 of whom are preschool age, 78 of whom are 6 to 14 years. The community is being asked to arrange care for 340 children who are about equally divided between preschool and 6 to 14-year old age groups. Indications are that many more women will go into employment. Industrial training courses are now admitting women. The Office of Production Management is encouraging defense industries in these communities to employ women."

A study of the needs for day care of children in the fall of 1941 in still another community with war industries showed that 116 children of 58 mothers, who were already employed, were not receiving adequate care or supervision. In addition 28 women with 64 children wanted day care provided for their children, so that the mothers would be free to work.

The situation in another State is described as follows:

"In regard to the need which is felt in this State for day care of children, we wish to say that the need has been intensified in the areas in which defense projects are located. Both the public and private agencies are being requested daily to provide day care for children whose mothers are employed or who come from homes or communities where conditions make supplementary or substitute care necessary. Facilities for meeting these needs are limited."

The superintendent of schools in a town in the East was reported to have declared:

"At least 500 families here have part-time orphans in their ranks because of the employment of mothers in defense industries."

In a town in another State it was found that—

"The mothers of approximately 1,000 children are employed. Of this number 225 are preschool age. One plant alone employs approximately 1,200 married women."

Last December a certain State reported:

"There is a definite increase in employment of women. Over 10,000 more women are employed as of November 30, 1941, than were of the same date in 1940. There is a great need for care of children in small communities which have suddenly become overcrowded and congested due to defense activities."

The Child Welfare League of America in December sent questionnaires on trends in requests for new services to 25 member agencies on the east and west coasts.¹ This inquiry showed that the greatest demand being made of these agencies is for the care of children of working mothers and that "this need has been felt increasingly during the past 6 months."² These reports showed that between 14 and 40 applications for day care were received in 1 month in some relatively small communities. The report further states:

"There is evidence of the urgent need for service to children of working mothers in all parts of the country. The following replies from the various sections, from California to New Jersey and from Maine to Florida, show not only how widespread is the need for this service, but how limited are the available resources for serving these mothers and children * * *."

"The subject of day care was not a part of a community plan but has developed rather suddenly since about the first of September. We have not been able to

¹ Child Welfare League of America Bulletin, January, 1942, pp. 9-11.

² Ibid., p. 9.

render services for all of these requests and if we do plan for that we will require additional staff * * *."

"All over the country mothers are beginning to ask for foster home and institution placement as a solution to the problem of the care of their children."

"We have a great many applications to board children so that mothers can go to work * * *."

The League concludes:

"The overwhelming numbers of children of working mothers needing day care challenge every resource that sound community planning can make available."

The needs reflected in these reports will become rapidly intensified during the next few months as the present program for the utilization of the woman power of the nation in war production is put increasingly into effect. These needs for services and facilities to supplement the home in the care of children of working mothers will undoubtedly mount month by month and continue throughout the war.

Limited resources to meet needs.

The present resources for day care of children of working mothers during the war emergency are limited in character and inadequate to meet the rapidly mounting need. This is especially true in sections where war industries have been located in rural areas, or in small towns, where there are practically no community organizations or social welfare agencies to meet the needs, or to develop a program.

The report on a survey of day care facilities in one county showed that:

"Good standards for care are lacking. Some persons open their homes for such care, have no equipment, crowd many children into one room and give a minimum of care. In some cases basements of churches are used. Untrained, poorly qualified workers were found in many instances. It is evident that there is need for planning for new services, for coordination of those in existence and for developing certain standards for agencies providing day care. The committee on family and child welfare of the coordinating council is bending its efforts to secure regulation and supervision of day nurseries."

"One Negro school reports 156 mothers working in that area with 167 pre-school children and no nursery care available. One house-to-house survey in another community shows out of 277 families surveyed, 114 mothers working with 236 pre-school children and no nursery care available. In one Negro housing project there are 125 mothers working and 198 pre-school children with no day care available. This gives a total of 395 Negro mothers who are working whose 601 infant and pre-school children have no nursery care."

This survey further reported that day nurseries are open as long as 8 to 12 hours, while nursery schools, kindergartens and play schools are open for 3 to 6 hours. Only a few mothers reported that they knew where their children went after they left kindergarten. Some went to neighbors and others to relatives. In a few cases the mothers came home early in the afternoon. Some of the nurseries accept children after school hours. Some of the nurseries reported many applications which cannot be accepted because of lack of facilities.

It is of the greatest importance to avoid the establishment of types of care that are inappropriate or are not needed or do not meet accepted standards of child care. It is evident that the resources and efforts of local communities and of States must be supplemented if proper provision is to be made to safeguard the welfare of children whose mothers are going into war industries.

Federal services available to help meet the problems of the day care of children of working mothers have been limited to those provided by the Work Projects Administration and the Farm Security Administration.

Dr. Grace Langdon, specialist, Family Life Education, Work Projects Administration, reported at the Children's Bureau Conference July 13 to August 1 that the Work Projects Administration had 1,500 nursery schools designed to serve children from relief or other low income groups.³ These schools provide opportunities for all-round development. Some of them provide care for as much as 10 hours of the day. The nursery schools take children from 2 to 4 years of age; other types of child-care centers which have been organized under the Work Projects Administration provide care more on the day nursery type for a wider age range.

The Farm Security Administration with the cooperation of the Work Projects Administration and National Youth Administration have provided nursery schools, or day nurseries, to care for the children of working mothers living in its various projects, including labor camps for migratory agricultural workers

³ Verbatim Transcript of Statements and Discussion, Conference on Day Care of Children of Working Mothers, Washington: July 13-August 1, 1941. P. 79.

and resettlement projects. As part of its program of providing temporary defense housing in defense areas, the Farm Security Administration undertakes to see that through the utilization of resources in the community and with the cooperation of the Work Projects Administration nursery schools are made available in the area where its trailers, or portable structures, are located.

The facilities provided through these two agencies, although extremely helpful and frequently the only resource in a community, are able to meet only a fraction of the rapidly mounting need for day care of children.

Funds for day-care programs under the Community Facilities Act (Public Law 137).

It has been determined that funds appropriated by Congress for "community facilities" in defense areas under the Lanham Act may be used for the construction, equipment, and operation of day-care centers for children of mothers working in activities essential to national defense where the State and local communities are financially unable to provide such care. The Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services has designated the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor as a technical agency to certify day-care projects. Under agreement between the Bureau and the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services the State welfare department will be the State agency responsible for supervising projects certified through the Children's Bureau. The State department of education is the State agency responsible for supervising projects certified through the United States Office of Education. An agreement has been reached with the United States Office of Education to the effect that it will be the technical agency certifying projects sponsored by local departments of education for the extension of school facilities for the care of children after school hours or before school hours, for the development of nursery schools and kindergartens, and for similar related activities, such as school meals.

Community planning for day care of children.

Suggestions regarding the ways in which a community plan may be developed have been made in an article entitled "A Community Program of Day Care for Children of Mothers Employed in Defense Areas," by Emma O. Lundberg of the staff of the United States Children's Bureau, a copy of which is appended. Communities in which women are employed in occupations essential to the national war effort need to take immediate steps to plan a comprehensive and unified program which will insure adequate care and protection of the children of such mothers. The responsibility for the development of such a program should be taken by some organization which represents community wide interests, such as the council of defense or the council of social agencies. Executive leadership in developing community project may well be taken by the local public welfare department, which has general responsibility for child welfare, and school projects, by the department of education. In determining needs and policies there should be participation by representatives of other public and private agencies concerned with children, the Work Projects Administration, which conducts Work Projects Administration nursery schools in many localities, the employment service, recreational agencies, and industry, organized labor, church and other civic groups.

In planning for emergency programs the long-range needs of the community must be given careful consideration; of first importance is adherence to standards of care that are essential to the safety and welfare of the children. Facilities required for the emergency should not be so permanent in structure that they cannot be changed or discontinued when the temporary need is over.

Community plans for the care and protection of children of working mothers should include as many types of day care as are required to meet the needs of children of all ages and should be integrated with the whole community program for public and private family assistance, social services to children, health protection, education, and recreation.

It must be determined, first, on the basis of studies of the situation in each community, how far the emergency needs can be met by existing agencies within their present capacity for service; second, what services can be expanded or readjusted to meet the new demand; third, what new types of service it will be necessary to develop.

Types of service which should be considered include:

(1) Counseling or advisory service to mothers concerning problems related to day care.

(2) Day-care centers.

(3) Programs outside of school hours for children of school age.

(4) Foster-family day care.

(5) Supervised homemaker service.

Mothers who are working or who are considering employment should have someone to whom they can go for advice and help in planning for the care of their children. Not all situations which present themselves will be solved by the simple expedient of placing the children in a nursery center or under some other type of care available in the community. The mother must be helped to think through her problem and to make plans that will safeguard the health and welfare of her children. The entire family group and their mode of living must be considered. The community has a stake in the plans from a production as well as from a social and financial point of view.

Individual counseling service should be provided as a vital part of the case-work service which should be available to parents who need help in planning for the care of their children and those who need continued guidance and assistance in order that the welfare of their children may be assured. Such service might be provided by the central day-care office or by individual day-care centers. The decision as to the method to be used in a particular community or section of a community should be made after careful study of the best means of making the service available to parents. Social workers with case-work training and experience should be employed for this service.

The child's health—mental as well as physical—must be considered in determining the kind of care he is to receive, and while he is under care his health must be protected. Whether the child is of nursery school or kindergarten age or of school age, the educational process which guides his development is an important part of his care. Recreation is related to the health, education, and social-service functions of day care. A program of parent education is essential in order that there may be continuity in policies regarding the management of the child and understanding of his needs and his development from day to day.

When day care has been established as one of the child welfare resources of the community in ordinary times, the provision made for emergency needs should be integrated with this program and should utilize these facilities so far as possible.

In most communities the major part of the care made available for young children whose mothers are employed in defense industries will be provided by day-care centers equipped for all-day care.

The day-care center should include the recognized features of a good day nursery, incorporating the methods and equipment of a nursery school. During the past few years day nurseries have increasingly come within this definition by adopting nursery-education methods, and recently many nursery schools have readjusted their programs so as to provide the full-day service of a day-care center.

Group care in a day-care center is particularly adapted to the needs of children 2 to 5 years of age, inclusive, the "pre-school age." If the center cares for school children outside of school hours separate provision should be made for these older children.

When a defense industry operates on two or three shifts, an effort should be made to secure arrangements whereby mothers of young children are employed during hours when they can reasonably expect to obtain care for their children. This is essential for the protection of the health of the children and of the mothers, and in order that proper care may be provided by day centers.

Although the functions of nursery schools operating under a half-day plan are comparatively limited with respect to furnishing the care required for children whose mothers are employed long hours in defense industries, they play an important part in the varied programs of child care needed in defense areas. Working mothers who are employed only part of the day and families in which a responsible adult in the home can care for the child outside of nursery school hours while the mother is at work can obtain the day-care services they require in a nursery school instead of in a day-care center. The counseling service of the community plan should take into account the needs in each situation.

Care and supervision of children of working mothers should be available not only for children of pre-school age, but for children of all ages.

Children of different age groups require varying types of provision for after-school care. Day nurseries or other day care centers frequently look after children from 6 to 10 or 12 years of age, during the time when school is not in session. If they have proper space and equipment to give these older children an opportunity for wholesome activities without undue disturbance of the program for preschool children such care should be made available, especially when it seems desirable that all children of one family should be cared for in one place. When a neighborhood house or other center of this kind is located near a day care center which cares for young children, a very desirable plan may be worked out for the after-school activities of the older children. Schools, churches, clubs, and recreation centers have an opportunity to perform a constructive service in making facilities available to children of school age.

The major responsibility for safeguarding children of school age falls naturally to the public and private schools of the community. Schools located in neighborhoods where considerable numbers of working mothers live should be equipped for after-school activities of various kinds which will appeal to children of grade-school ages, and to older groups of boys and girls.

The Conference on Day Care of Children of Working Mothers held under the auspices of the United States Children's Bureau included the following statement in its recommendations: "Infants should be given individual care, preferably in their own homes and by their own mothers." When it is necessary to provide care for children under 2 years of age away from their own homes, the most suitable form of care is placement for day care in a foster-family home. Health hazards involved are such, however, that care away from the child's own home should not be resorted to without special safeguards.

Foster-family day care is desirable for children 2 years of age and over who will do better under individual care than as members of a group. This form of care may be useful when the family lives at some distance from a day-care center. Several children of various ages in one family may be cared for together in a foster-family home which serves as a substitute for their own home during the mother's absence.

When possible, arrangements should be made to have preschool children in the care of foster families attend a nursery school just as their older brothers and sisters will attend school.

Foster-family day care as yet has been developed extensively by social agencies in only a small number of communities, but indications are that it will be used increasingly as a community resource for the care of children of working mothers. In the absence of provision by recognized agencies, many working mothers will doubtless continue to make their own arrangements for this type of care. Community plans for day care of children should include provision for assisting these mothers to find suitable foster-family homes. So far as possible, however, resources for day care in foster-family homes should be developed by established social agencies in the community, thus providing needed case-work service and safeguarding the health of the children.

Supervised homemaker service has been developed in a number of cities to provide services when the mother is absent from the home or when she is in the home but because of illness or for some other reason is unable to give proper care to her children. This service is provided by family-welfare or child-welfare agencies and is made available to families with low incomes who need service in order to keep the home intact while it lacks a mother's care. Homemakers are carefully selected and trained for the service which they are to give, and work under the direction of the agency which also provides casework service needed by the family. By this plan the children have the continuity of care and the security which their own home can afford and their usual living habits are maintained.

Homemaker service can make a significant contribution to a day-care program. When a child is sick and unable to go to a day-care center, foster home or school, care in his own home should be made available, as otherwise the mother would have to leave her work.

Training of the "homemakers," must be supplied by an experienced agency which also supervises their activities. Facilities for training for this service should be developed in communities in which it can be carried on successfully.

A community program for day care cannot be effective unless there is a plan for sound financial support which will ensure services of the kind needed, maintaining standards of health, education, and social service in accordance with the best practice. Planning cannot lead to constructive action unless means can be made available for adequate financing from public or private sources.

Day nurseries and other facilities for day care of children have been supported mainly by private organizations, through community chests or otherwise, part of the cost being paid by parents of the children under care. In communities where the needs are greatly increased by the defense emergency existing day-care centers may not be able to finance additional work through their own funds, parents' contributions, or allotments by community chests already heavily taxed to help maintain established health and welfare services. If day-care programs are to be established which will meet the needs of defense communities, it will be necessary for public funds to provide some part of the cost.

The cost of adequate care in a day-care center must be determined as part of the plan. Consideration should be given to the availability of free food supplies through surplus commodities and to the use of volunteer service supplementing paid service. The rising cost of living must be taken into account in planning the budget.

The cost of day care in foster family homes will be influenced by the prevailing rates paid for foster family care in the community. The cost of supervised home-maker service will also depend upon the wages paid for trained service of this kind.

State leadership in the development of day-care programs.

"Federal and State agencies and national organizations have a continuing responsibility for exerting leadership in upholding standards of child care. These agencies have the further responsibility of stimulating action by local communities and assisting them in their efforts to meet the increased demands for care and protection of children which have grown out of or have been augmented by the expansion of defense activities."⁴

Official agencies in a number of States have recognized the necessity for State assistance in planning community programs of day care for children in defense areas. In several States the department of public welfare or some other State department is studying the needs of defense communities and helping them to plan programs of day care. Such action is essential especially in States where there are a number of defense areas. In Connecticut and Utah, and perhaps also in some other States, leadership has been assumed by a social-welfare committee of the State Defense Council.

Whether the responsibility for State action is centered in one of the existing State agencies or in an official organization created for this special purpose, it is desirable that the State planning group shall include representatives from the departments of welfare, health, education, and labor and from the State Defense Council and the Work Projects Administration. State-wide organizations which can make a contribution to the work of the State committee on day care should also be included, as well as representatives of councils of social agencies or other community-wide organizations in cities in which there is likely to be need for special provision for children of working mothers.

The State department or committee should inform itself concerning the need for provision of day care for children in defense areas throughout the State in order that it may be in a position to stimulate local action when needed.

State agencies should take responsibility for stimulating action by local communities, for assisting them to meet the increased needs for day care of children of women going into war industries and for upholding standards of child care.

The State department of public welfare, which is responsible for the administration of State child-welfare programs including child-welfare services receiving Federal aid under the Social Security Act, and the State department of education are the State agencies which should be chiefly responsible for carrying out a State-wide program. They should act in cooperation with State departments of health and labor, and other interested agencies. State departments will need to be in a position to provide expert consultation service to communities, to prepare material, and to develop and secure compliance with standards of service.⁵

The representatives of the public welfare and education departments, as the two agencies carrying primary responsibility in this program, will frequently need to make joint visits to areas with special problems and participate in joint planning conferences with the responsible agencies in the local community.

The State agency or agencies which assume leadership in helping communities plan a coordinated day-care program must be alert to the dangers of unregulated day-care activities by individuals or groups which are not equipped to provide safe care for children. Day nurseries, nursery schools, and play centers are springing up overnight in many communities, sometimes activated by purely commercial motives. The State departments of welfare, health, and education must be enabled to fulfill their responsibilities for safeguarding children who require day-care service. These three agencies of the State should act in harmony for the protection of children.

Responsibility of the Federal Government.

A program for day care of children cannot be developed as a separate program but must be related to other services providing health protection, educational opportunities, recreation, and social service. Federal agencies carrying programs of cooperation with the States in extending and strengthening these basic services are planning together concerning the special problems of care and supervision of children whose mothers are employed in defense areas and methods of utilizing

⁴ From the recommendations adopted by the Children's Bureau Conference on Day Care of Children of Working Mothers.

⁵ Suggested standards for day care prepared by a committee created as a result of the conference called by the Children's Bureau last July are about to be issued by the Children's Bureau.

to the fullest extent the Federal and State resources available within the local communities.⁶

The Federal Government should stand ready to give leadership in stimulating the development of day-care programs, in suggesting standards, and providing consultation services for State agencies.

The Children's Bureau should have the resources to render the following types of service:

1. To serve as a center of information regarding the needs for day care of children throughout the country.
2. To advise the States and local communities regarding the development of day-care programs and supply material concerning their operation.
3. To promote standards which will prevent the growth of hasty and ill-conceived day-care programs and will assure the provision of adequate care.
4. To aid and encourage training of both paid and volunteer workers in the field of day care.
5. To cooperate with other Federal and national agencies in planning steps which can be taken to meet emergency needs as they occur.
6. To serve as a medium through which Federal funds may reach States and local communities.

Problems of day care of children of mothers employed in occupations essential to the war effort must be met if child neglect and delinquency are to be prevented. They could be met through the programs of Federal aid to the States at present carried on by the Children's Bureau under the provisions of title V, parts 1 and 3, of the Social Security Act, if additional funds could be made available, accompanied by provision for Federal aid administered through the Office of Education to State departments of education for before- and after-school programs, nursery schools, and school meals. Such a program would provide the basic services needed by the Federal and State agencies and would be available for types of community services outlined in this statement which cannot be met at all or fully under existing programs.

EXHIBIT 2.—WOMEN IN WAR PRODUCTION

REPORT BY SUSAN B. ANTHONY II, CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON NATIONAL DEFENSE AND COMMUNITY WELFARE, UNITED FEDERAL WORKERS' AUXILIARY, CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

FEBRUARY 2, 1942.

When the Tolan committee recently revealed that less than a third of the productive capacity of the largest automobile plants in the Nation would be converted to war use by the end of 1942, the Nation was shocked.

Equally shocking is the fact that less than one twenty-fifth of the woman labor force of the Nation is being utilized for war production. Only one-fourth of all American women, 12.8 million, are in the labor force, and of that number only 500,000 are engaged in war industries.

Yet the experience of our allies—Britain, Russia, and China—has clearly shown that the effective utilization of womanpower is one of the vital factors determining the outcome of this war. For this war depends on production, and the volume of production depends to a large degree on the number of women workers who can be recruited to replace men serving in the armed forces.

The experience of our allies also proves that women can do almost anything in war production, if—and there are two important "ifs"—first, they are released sufficiently from household chores and the care of small children, and secondly, if they are given vocational training so that they can attain necessary skills.

America's largest labor reserve is comprised of its 28 million housewives. Today, those housewives are working at home in hand tasks, only indirectly related to the Nation's major war effort. Tomorrow, those same housewives can provide an efficient, productive body of war workers.

The United Federal Workers Auxiliary, Congress of Industrial Organizations, is convinced that the Federal Government must take immediate steps to release sufficient numbers of America's 28 million housewives for war production. First, in importance, is a national war nursery program. Mothers cannot go to work unless provision is made for their preschool children. Defense areas, where this problem is most acute, are not in most cases, the areas that can afford or are willing

⁶ Especially the Children's Bureau, the Office of Education, and the Work Projects Administration.

to set up, free, public nursery schools. The District of Columbia, an example of a defense area, has but 100 preschool institutions, caring for only a small fraction of the children of the Nation's Capital.

At present, seven Federal agencies are interested in the national problem of preschool care. Centralization of authority or responsibility is completely lacking. A single war agency must be empowered by an appropriating act of Congress to coordinate all child care efforts and to establish day care centers in all defense areas in the United States. Professional nursery educators can be assisted in this program by large numbers of volunteers who are now being trained for the work.

Child care is only one of the housewives' tasks that prevents them from taking their full part in paid and unpaid war work. If women are to go out of the household into the factory or office, increased facilities for the provision of meals must be made. This means an extension of the school lunch program, and the establishment on a large scale of factory and office lunches for defense workers. With the extension of the working day to after 6 in the evening, provision for the evening meal may become necessary as in England.

Vocational training is the second major need, if millions of American women are to be utilized effectively in the war program. Although Government agencies concerned with this problem have issued memoranda urging equal training opportunities for women, they have as yet not devised standardized means of obtaining the necessary willingness of employers to hire trained women. Vocational training for women is ineffective unless the Government enunciates an official policy that jobs must be open to women equally with men.

It is essential for the maintenance of hard won labor standards in wages, seniority rights and other working conditions, that the Government insure women equal pay for equal work and equal promotions for equal merit. This is a necessity not only for the women workers concerned, but for all organized labor which has fought for these standards.

The United Federal Workers Auxiliary, Congress of Industrial Organizations, believes that the problem of the utilization of women in the war effort merits the attention of an over-all war agency, which will integrate American women into the war program and will coordinate the present numerous and scattered activities of various departments, divisions, and committees.

EXHIBIT 3.—THE DAY CARE OF YOUNG CHILDREN

REPORT BY ALICE COE MENDHAM, CHAIRMAN, EMERGENCY COMMITTEE FOR DAY CARE OF YOUNG CHILDREN, WASHINGTON, D. C.—RESEARCH ASSISTANCE BY MARY RUNYON

I. Statement of the problem.

The question of labor supply of women in defense industries is directly contingent upon the care that can be provided for young children. We are just beginning to feel the impact of war in the United States in terms of family disruption. Yet the need for daytime care of children below school age whose mothers are engaged in or needed for defense work is already widely apparent.

Examples of needs for day care.—The following are illustrative needs for day care in defense areas, particularly, where the population has changed practically overnight.

1. Children from trailer homes where living is crowded, where there are no play facilities, and where the father must work nights and sleep days.

2. Children of working mothers who (a) are domestics and have no one to care for their children while they care for those of women who have gone to work in defense; (b) have returned to work because of the need for skilled workers to increase production. Brig. Gen. Lewis B. Hershey says that America will ultimately require the service of between 16,000,000 and 17,000,000 women in the Nation's industrial plants;¹ (c) have gone to work to help support the family because of increased living costs, or because father is unemployed due to new conditions, e. g. filling stations and roadside stands closed, tire shops closed, garment workers out, and taxi drivers out.

3. Linda Vista, outside of San Diego, a defense housing project, a community of 3,000 homes with a population of 12,000, where more than half the children are

¹ Speech in Philadelphia, January 30, 1942.

below school age. Two hundred women are employed in the Consolidated Aircraft factories already, with no provision made for care of young children.

Additional examples from communities are furnished in Katharine Lenroot's statement to this committee.

Preschool children present greatest problem.—The problem of day care of children of working mothers is not limited to children under school age, since care for school-age children both before and after school hours is a necessity if safety and morale are to be preserved. Educational facilities and recreation programs provide a partial, though inadequate, answer to this need. We deal in this paper, however, only with the day care of young children for three reasons: (1) Because the mothers between 20 and 30 with younger children will probably constitute the largest number recruited into defense industries; (2) because there is little or no Government provision in most communities for the care and education of young children outside the home² and (3) because there is no governmental regulation or licensing provision (local or Federal) for private nursery schools, play groups, etc., in most communities.

II. English program for nursery care.

In England today there are 7,000,000 women working in full-time jobs—5,000,000 in industry, and 2,000,000 in war organizations (including military forces).³

There are no figures available on how many of these are mothers, but this number must constitute a large proportion of English women under 40 who are mothers of England's coming generation.

The English experience can serve as an invaluable aid to planning in the United States for the use of womanpower. Public concern and Government responsibility in Great Britain for the care and education of very young children date back well over a century. Children from the age of 3 have been admitted to Government schools in industrial communities, where mothers were working, since 1816. Government funds have been granted for education of the "under fives," as they are called, since 1872.

At the outset of the war in England, there were the following types of provisions for children under 5:

1. Nursery schools, administered by the medical branch of the board of education.
2. Nursery classes in elementary schools, under the board of education.
3. Ordinary infant departments in elementary schools, admitting children from 3 up, but with no special provision for them, under the board of education.
4. Day nurseries under the ministry of health.

In accordance with evacuation procedures in 1939-40,⁴ most of the children enrolled in these groups were transferred to large country homes in reception areas for 24-hour care. Three hundred and thirteen such residential nurseries have been established to date. The success of evacuation of children under 5 was closely related to the facilities existing before the war for this age group.⁵ However, centers soon became necessary for the care of young children who had evacuated with their mothers and were billeted in homes in reception areas. Conditions in the billets were crowded and there was usually no space for the preschool children to play. Consequently in January 1940, the board of education and the ministry of health jointly issued a circular outlining in detail how nursery centers could be organized by local authorities with financial support from the Government. Within a year, 86 approved nursery centers, mostly in reception areas, with accommodations for 2,700 children had been set up.⁶

Meanwhile the ministry of labor had found it necessary to set up day and night nurseries for the children of women workers in armament plants in order to obtain the requisite number of workers. These have proved inadequate to meet the need partly due to lack of adequate housing available in congested areas, and partly to lack of sufficient trained personnel for child care.

Daily guardians.—Therefore, the ministry of labor and national service has devised a scheme for recruiting women who can care for two or three children in their own homes. These women are termed "daily guardians" and are regis-

² Nursery schools organized by Work Projects Administration and Farm Security Administration are an exception to this, as shown below.

³ British Press Service, Washington, D. C.

⁴ Evacuation of children will not be dealt with in this paper, since it has been so ably and completely described in Dr. M. M. Eliot's report, *Civil Defense Measures For the Protection of Children*.

⁵ Evacuation Survey: Padley & Cole.

⁶ London Times, Educational Supplement, February 19, 1941.

tered by the local maternity and child-welfare authorities and supervised by a health visitor. Under the terms of the plan, the daily guardians can draw State payment of 4s. per week for each child under 5, in addition to compensation from the working mother.

Wartime nurseries.—The most recent development in nursery care is outlined in a plan released jointly by the board of education and the ministry of health on December 5, 1941, entitled "The Care of Young Children of Women Workers: A Vital Need." All nurseries for children under 5 will be known henceforth as wartime nurseries and the Government will take over full financial responsibility for these. These nurseries may be part time, open during school hours; or full time, 12–15 hours a day. Mothers will pay 1s. per day for full-time nurseries with 3 meals given, and 3d. a day for part time. No payment will be asked from evacuated mothers who are not working. They will be open to the children of all women who go out to work for the whole day in any kind of employment. Wartime nurseries are to be administered by a joint staff of the ministry of health and the board of education. Three hundred and sixty-five such nurseries are reported to date.⁷

Child-care reserves.—The lack of trained personnel to handle the group care of young children in emergencies proved a serious handicap in the early days of evacuation. To remedy this situation, training for child-care reserve was organized in June 1940 by the national council for maternity and child welfare. Volunteer women between the ages of 18 and 55 were given a 2-week course of instruction, consisting of 12 lectures accompanied by practical demonstrations and followed by an examination. Fifty hours of practical work at a recognized institution was then required of successful candidates. Child-care reservists are paid at the general rate laid down for women's civil defense volunteers. £2 a week and room and board if necessary. (1) At present there is a recruiting campaign for girls of 16–20 and women over 30. Payment of 10s. a week plus an arrangement for billeting students near the center of instruction is offered. The ministry of labor's recent statement that "the care of children is a national service" (2) indicates the importance attached to this work.

III. United States Federal program for day care of young children.

In the United States, we have little precedent for the expenditure of State or Federal funds, exclusive of Work Projects Administration, on the care of young children in nursery groups.

Of 285 nursery schools listed by the Office of Education in 1936, 11 were in publicly supported elementary and high schools, 19 sponsored by philanthropic institutions, the others privately run.⁸ At the present time, there are 8 Federal Bureaus that have a program concerned with the day care of young children. Three of these bureaus have programs in operation now.

Work Projects Administration.—The Work Projects Administration family life education program has been operating nursery schools for children of unemployed workers since 1933, under the general provisions necessary for education projects.

In October 1941, there were 1,192 units or nursery schools with a total enrollment of 35,401 children in 48 States and Hawaii, excluding the District of Columbia. Today there are approximately 1,300 nursery schools. To staff these schools a training program has been organized in each State among unemployed women eligible for Work Projects Administration to work under the supervision of a trained supervisor.

Some assistants have been furnished for the nursery schools by the program of the National Youth Administration as will be shown below. Within the last 6 months, another type of group has been inaugurated in defense areas, called Child Development Group Units, to supplement the nursery school program where dislocated populations are concentrated and where educational facilities are not available for young children. These may be organized in ⁹ areas adjacent to Army camps, naval bases, aviation fields and in any other area where families of enlisted men are concentrated; and ¹⁰ in areas where industrial workers are at work on some specific project related to defense preparations.

Another new development of the Work Projects Administration family life program to help meet the needs of defense areas is the establishment of public child-care centers. These may be organized for children from 18 months to 6

⁷ British Press Service, Washington, D. C.

⁸ Report of M. M. Eliot.

⁹ Handbill distributed by Ministry of Labor and National Service.

¹⁰ School Life, vol. 22, No. 4, p. 117. Most recent figures.

years, and the length of day will be determined by the hours of employment of the mothers.

All three types of unit operate under the sponsorship of the local education authorities, and are supervised by the State technical supervisor of nursery schools.

This program is the only widespread Federal plan operating at present that attempts to meet the need for day care of young children of working mothers, but it is far from adequate. It is restricted by lack of funds, and the increasing difficulty of obtaining personnel.

Since the Work Projects Administration rolls have been drastically cut with increasing employment, and since the schools and day care centers must be staffed by those eligible under Work Projects Administration regulations, the number of potential teachers is constantly dwindling.

National Youth Administration.—Another factor in the labor supply of trained workers for day care planning on a national scale is the training program for assistants in nursery schools supervised by the National Youth Administration. National Youth Administration has maintained work experience projects for girls aged 17–24 in group care of young children since 1935. These girls have been placed in nursery schools or day care programs sponsored by local education or housing authorities or Work Projects Administration for in-service training. In addition, related training classes ranging from 40 to 60 hours are being conducted by the Vocational Education Section of the Office of Education. This program included 2,035 girls working in nursery schools in November 1941. These nursery schools are serving such defence communities as East St. Louis where the mothers are employed in munitions plants and California where the mothers are working in the aircraft industry. But under a ruling of the Labor Supply Division of the former Office of Production Management, training in child care is not considered defense training at present. If we are to expand, the number of working mothers as rapidly as seems imminent, a change will be necessary to include this type of training as part of the defense program.

Farm Security Administration.—The Farm Security Administration has nursery school or day care facilities in all permanent camps for migratory workers and some of the resettlement communities. The most recent figures (January 1942) comprise 50 units of nursery care: 5 in Florida, 10 in southeast Missouri, 3 in Arizona, 12 in California, 4 in Idaho, 5 in Oregon, 4 in Washington, and 7 in Texas. These include 23 of the mobile units operating along the west coast which move with the crops; nursery centers being set up in tents for the duration of the crop season because all adults and older children participate in the field work.

The number of children per unit fluctuates from 25 to 70 children according to slack or busy season. The usual age of children served is from 2 to 5, but in 1 center in Florida children of packers ranging from 6 months to 6 years were given 24-hour supervision. In one community in Missouri where the workers were slow to take advantage of the day care facilities offered, largely due to ignorance and fear, two little children locked in the house for the day were badly burned. The next morning the nursery center was swamped with children presented for care.

The nursery schools are staffed and equipped in cooperation with the Work Projects Administration and with National Youth Administration assistants.

As the need for care is increasing with more workers and longer hours needed for agricultural production, there is a decreasing number of people available in rural areas for staffing the nursery centers. With the cut in Work Projects Administration rolls cited above, there is insufficient personnel in any category to operate the nursery centers. Hence these facts point to the necessity of instituting a training program for the care of children among lay people in rural communities whose formal education stopped at about the third or fourth grade. There remains a need for adequate equipment, for personnel, and for the training of personnel.

Procedure under Community Facilities Act.—The present plans for increasing facilities for care of children under funds obtained through the Community Facilities Act lie with four Federal agencies: the Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services, Office of Emergency Management, Defense Public Works Division of the Federal Works Agency, the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, and the Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.

"It has been determined that funds appropriated by Congress for community facilities in defense areas under the Lanham Act (Public Law 137) may be used for the construction, equipment, and operation of day-care centers for children of mothers working in activities essential to national defense, where the State and local communities are financially unable to provide such care. Projects may now

be submitted for the establishment and operation of day care centers under the same procedures as now obtain for other projects under the Community Facilities Act."¹¹

Projects for day care of children under this law may be initiated locally by the appropriate State or local welfare agency or by education authorities. The Office of Education will issue certificates of necessity for projects submitted by city, county, or State education departments. The Children's Bureau will certify day care projects other than those certified by the Office of Education. All projects for day care centers, of whatever origin, will be cleared through the Regional Director of the office of Defense Health and Welfare Services.

Legal and financial review of all projects is carried out by the Defense Public Works Division of the Federal Works Agency which is the agency responsible for administration of the community facilities law.

Upon approval, funds will be paid over directly to the local authority submitting the project which will administer and supervise the day care center in consultation with the regional representative of the certifying Federal Bureau. It is urged that community plans be made in conjunction with labor, health, and other local agencies concerned with the day care problem.¹² No projects have been approved as yet for operation under Public Law 137.

Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services.—The Office of Defense Health and Welfare Services thus performs a coordinating function but does not actually operate programs. It is concerned with the day care of children of mothers working in defense areas as part of its general interest in health and welfare but leaves the actual approval of standards and budget, and the finding as to local necessity of individual projects to the technical agency involved (either the Children's Bureau or the Office of Education).

The Recreation Section of the Defense Health and Welfare Services is responsible for certifying recreation buildings in defense areas, which may offer facilities for day care of children.

Children's Bureau.—The Children's Bureau has organized a Day Care Unit which is prepared to render various kinds of service to local communities for the protection of children in the emergency if funds can be made available to adequately implement this program. Since Miss Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau, is presenting here own statement to this committee, it is unnecessary to outline their program for day care here.

Office of Education.—The Office of Education, as has been stated above, is concerned with the operation of nursery schools under local departments of education in defense areas by means of Federal funds obtained through Public Law 137. Any program certified insofar as possible will require payment for such services particularly if both parents are working. The State school administration section is given over largely to this emergency function, and will aid in working out State plans to meet the additional burdens cast upon defense areas.

In the opinion of those working on the program, provisions under Public Law 137 do not by any means meet the problems of education in local communities. Consequently a second program is being planned for supplementary services which will require appropriation of additional funds. This will apply to communities where there is severe overcrowding, serious unemployment due to defense industrial displacements, inadequate housing, and lack of adequate financing where mothers have had to become the breadwinner of the family. The plan includes: Employment of personnel to work on school gardens for supplying school lunches, the care of school children both before and after school hours, a compulsory attendance service for schools in areas where children are moving about with migratory families, and a child counseling service for children of these families.

Extension Department of Department of Agriculture.—The Extension Department of the Department of Agriculture has maintained an adult education program since 1926 in child development and parent education. Twenty thousand leaders in rural communities are trained every year by means of groups organized with the aid of the home-demonstration agent. Planning a program for defense needs will be worked out by State colleges with the cooperation of the advisory councils of farm women in counties. It should be possible to utilize these services of many of these trained leaders as volunteers in rural areas, where day care of children of working mothers becomes a necessity.

¹¹ Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, February 2, 1942.

¹² For further details on procedure between agencies under Public Law 137, see release of Children's Bureau, January 24, 1942.

Experience gained in the making of toys and play equipment and in the organization of community play groups should be put to useful service for emergency needs. With the cooperation of the National Youth Administration, community playgrounds have been organized which may permit of expansion to include needs for day care of young children.

Office of Civilian Defense.—Working with the other agencies on their programs in an informative capacity, stimulating their activities on the basis of reports furnished through Office of Civilian Defense, Division of Information. It will help communities to work out plans through their own agencies, and will refer requests made to them to the proper technical agency for reply, e. g. educational requests to the Office of Education, general child welfare requests to the Children's Bureau, etc.

It will publish information of a general character to go out to local offices on:

1. Protection of children in schools.
2. Training of volunteers in child care.
3. Advice to parents and teachers on how to handle children in an emergency.

Defense housing groups.—The defense housing agencies may play a potential role in providing day-care facilities. Community buildings or community space in defense housing projects may be used for day care. In some instances this has already been done. These day-care centers may be operated by the Work Projects Administration or by local authorities or by the regular procedures under Public Law 137.

Joint Planning Board.—The Joint Planning Board, an interdepartmental group composed of the Work Projects Administration, the Children's Bureau, and the Office of Education was inaugurated following the July conference on day care problems called by the Children's Bureau. The purpose of this Board was to insure a joint planning and clearance of their respective programs by the three bureaus involved on all day-care problems. In view of the emergency situation which has developed, it has become necessary to curtail the joint planning but to emphasize only the clearance of programs, and discussion of over-all policy.

Conclusions.—The statements above thus constitute the Federal program in the United States for the day care of young children of mothers working through defense areas. It is clearly indicated that the bureaus most concerned with the problems of children have been alert to the rapidly mounting need for day care and have geared their work to meet that need within the limitation of funds available. The importance of maintaining a continuous and understanding contact between the eight Federal bureaus involved cannot be overemphasized if we are going to meet the needs of American children in the war effort. These statements point to the necessity of appointing some central coordinating body for the educational welfare of young children to insure the fullest utilization of all programs now in existence. Without the appropriation or allocation of additional funds and the training of additional personnel, the care of children in the national emergency cannot be met on a national scale. We may well review the experience and program of the English in this connection as we set up our own plan for utilization of woman power.

Private organizations: National Association for Nursery Education.—Private organizations also contribute their share. The National Association for Nursery Education, a professional organization, has inaugurated the following defense program for young children: The National Commission for Young Children (2 to 6) was organized to aid and safeguard, insofar as possible, the mental and physical health of young children during this emergency. The Commission works closely with those Federal agencies concerned with young children. It has State committees which in turn operate with groups in local communities.

In all cases, the committees work with the available defense councils. The chairman in each state are professional workers, who, in cooperation with existent public and private agencies and professional workers, are training personnel and placing them where they are most needed. In Ohio, there are 90 trained volunteers at work on various projects, e. g. training courses, surveys, etc. Training courses and programs are organized in cooperation with existent educational, social, and health community agencies.

IV. Program for day care in the District of Columbia.

We can do no better than to quote Chairman Tolán's vivid description of the situation in the Nation's Capital¹³ "Obviously community facilities for the

¹³ January 8, 1942.

hundreds of thousands of men and women who have come to the District of Columbia to assist in hastening America's victory over tyrant powers are tragically inadequate. Washington is now a great city. It is the seat of our Government engaged in a world-wide struggle for democracy. Center of interest for the entire Nation, Washington is inevitably the example to which all American municipalities will look and should be the master model—in organizing all means for protecting its residents in wartime."

Washington not officially designated defense area.—In spite of this, Washington has not been officially designated as a defense area. This fact has prevented the District from receiving any of the funds already appropriated by Congress for relief of such situations in defense areas throughout the country.

Fifty-one thousand seven hundred persons migrated to Washington between October 1, 1940, and November 1941,¹⁴ and it has been estimated that 40,000 more will be drawn to the city by Government employment in the next 6 months. Already congested housing with inadequate space for young children coupled with the lack of domestic workers increases the need for care of children outside of the home.

Cooperating groups.—The Council of Social Agencies has initiated a comprehensive program for increasing facilities for day care of children in which the emergency committee for day care of young children, a volunteer group composed of preschool specialists and representatives of interested organizations, is cooperating. The plans are closely coordinated with the work of the committee on child care and protection of the voluntary participation of the District of Columbia Defense Council.

Survey of need.—1. A survey of the need for day care is being made by recording on appropriate forms all requests for nursery schools or day care that come to child welfare agencies. Private nursery schools and employee counselors of Government departments have also been asked to cooperate. In this way information will be gained as to which sections of the city are most in need of additional facilities for day care, and for how many hours this service is necessary. Within the past 6 weeks, 189 such requests (132 white, 57 colored) have been received. The northeast section of the city has been shown thus far to be most in need of additional facilities, although requests have come from all sections of Washington and the suburbs. Eighty-eight percent of the children for whom care is requested are under 6. Of the mothers, 59 percent are working, 30 percent being in the Government. An additional 20 percent want work, and for the others, no data are furnished.

Additional facilities wait upon funds.—(2) A survey of possible houses by the committee on child care and protection has yielded two suitable locations for day-care centers, one colored and one white. An operating budget and estimated repairs are ready. The realization of this necessary project waits only upon appropriation of funds through Congress.

In addition, the board of education acting through the committee, has a plan ready for before- and after-school care of children in school buildings which could be implemented at once by the appropriation of necessary funds. In order to make school buildings available for day care of preschool children, the law prohibiting their use for children under 5 must be changed.

Survey of existing facilities.—(3) A survey of the present facilities for day care in the Metropolitan area of Washington is being conducted to determine the resources of and the standards maintained in existent preschool groups. For this purpose, the emergency committee for day care of young children called two open forums, inviting all preschool and day care groups to send representatives, to discuss the widespread need for specific information on nursery care. It was agreed at the forums to set up machinery for conducting a city-wide survey of existing institutions. The research group of the emergency committee thereupon drew up questionnaires on the basis of informational items agreed upon at the forum meetings. This questionnaire has been mailed to all institutions offering day care of preschool children, and followed by a visit to each unit by a member of the visitor's committee. A preliminary report on the survey shows that there are 109 groups, white and colored, scattered throughout Washington and the suburbs. Some are open for care as little as 3 hours, 5 days a week; some as long as 12 hours, 6 days a week. They serve a group of children ranging in age from a few months through 5 years. Tuitions vary from zero in the few philanthropic groups to \$35 per month for a 5-day week. The groups range in size from 7 children to 61. Some serve 3 meals a day. Most of the groups are

¹⁴ Work Projects Administration Study—Recent Migration into Washington, D. C., January 5, 1942.

filled to capacity with a waiting list. Eleven groups are completely heterogeneous as to manner of operation, standards maintained, and type of services offered. The fact that there is still a growing number of requests for day care indicates that existing private and philanthropic groups are inadequate to meet the need. It is interesting to note that this survey has been carried out completely by trained volunteer effort without expense to the community.

Health regulations.—(4) Preschool groups for day care in the District of Columbia are required to obtain a license from the Health Department. A new set of health regulations is being set up now which will standardize not only provisions for physical set-up and health requirements, but also personnel qualifications regarding training, experience, and health requirements. These new regulations are being used now as the basis for recommendations for permits.

The Bureau of Maternal and Child Welfare of the Health Department has also been furnishing information to parents about day care groups which has been obtained by health visitors.

Information and counseling service.—(5) It is proposed to set up in the Office of the Emergency Committee for Day Care of Children, which is now organized as a full-time volunteer information center on day care, an additional counseling service with the cooperation of social agencies and trained volunteers. Counseling will aid mothers who are working or considering employment in planning for the adequate care of their children.

Neighborhood homes.—(6) A study of day care in neighborhood homes is in progress, chiefly among the Negro population. Blanks are sent home from a junior high school in a sample area to ascertain how and where young children are being provided for while the mother works. In this way sufficient data may be obtained to set up a registry of neighborhood homes providing day care and will also permit of regulation.

Expansion of present facilities.—(7) A committee of specialists in preschool education is exploring the possibility of expanding existing groups or locating new day care centers in downtown churches or other community buildings. Possible locations are inspected by committee members as to their suitability, and recommendations made as to the number of children that can be accommodated, staff and equipment requirements, etc. A bulletin is in preparation, Preliminary Considerations for Setting Up Day Care Centers, to aid groups or individuals in organizing programs to meet this need.

Training course for volunteers.—(8) A training course for volunteers in nursery school procedures is being given now which includes 10 lectures 5 observation periods or field trips, and 50 hours of practice. There are 50 volunteer students enrolled through the cooperation of the Defense Volunteer Bureau, the American Women's Voluntary Services, and the Women's Auxiliary of the C. I. O. The plan is that upon successful completion of the course, these volunteers will be able to give a stated amount of time in new or expanding centers for day care of children. This course, sponsored by the Council of Social Agencies, is conducted entirely by volunteer services of professional people.

EXHIBIT 4.—SERVICES OF WOMEN PSYCHOLOGISTS IN THE EMERGENCY

REPORT BY THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL'S SUBCOMMITTEE ON THE SERVICES OF WOMEN PSYCHOLOGISTS IN THE EMERGENCY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The women psychologists of the United States, like all groups of professionally minded persons, are eager to render services which will contribute to the welfare of the country in this time of emergency. There are certain activities in which their background, training, and experience have given them proficiency, and which can, they believe, be directed at this time toward developing programs greatly needed in our present national crisis. It therefore seems appropriate to place on record some of the services to which women psychologists throughout the country would be able and glad to contribute time and energy during the war period.

(1) Women psychologists can institute psychological testing programs in order to screen out those men who because of limited mental capacity or educational deficiencies could not be trained to adjust successfully to life in the Army. In order that such a screening process may occur early enough to avoid waste of time and resources on the part of both the individual and the country, such projects should be developed in connection with local draft boards. In some

areas such testing programs have been inaugurated and have functioned successfully, and many men who would otherwise have been sent back later from induction centers because of illiteracy or poor mental ability have been detected before leaving their homes, giving up jobs, and altering irrevocably their way of life. Psychologists would welcome the opportunity of developing such testing projects with local draft boards in many places throughout the country.

(2) Women psychologists are in a position to participate in the processes of selection, classification, placement, and training of workers in industry, in farm operations, in defense agencies, and in many other situations where inevitably many women must now replace men. Trade tests, some of them already constructed on the basis of job analyses, but used heretofore chiefly for men, must be standardized for women, and new tests must be devised in fields where no adequate instruments now exist. Placement of the individual in work for which he possesses aptitude cannot be haphazard, but demands experience and judgment which psychologists working in this field have developed after many years of training. It involves not only the selection and application of appropriate tests, but the evaluation of the applicant's history, background, and experience in relation to the occupational opportunity. Scientific methods of selection can be employed helpfully not only with women in industry and agriculture, but among volunteer workers in civilian defense agencies, where it is of utmost importance that the worker be allocated to that task which he will perform most competently.

In training programs, also, women psychologists who have devoted thought and research to methods of learning will be able to perform a helpful function.

(3) Many nursery schools are now being established for children of women workers in defense industries. In the inauguration and operation of these nursery schools women trained in child psychology can play an important part.

(4) Participation in training programs for child-care volunteers is already going on by some women psychologists, and many others would be glad to serve in such courses. Training of child-care volunteers would demand rapid and extensive development if plans for evacuation of children should be carried out.

(5) Long-range planning for post-war problems of reeducation and readjustment of wounded soldiers is already under way. Such plans present a wide range of problems in many of which women psychologists can function usefully. In reeducation after cerebral injury, in consulting services in connection with occupational therapists, in projects involving vocational rehabilitation and vocational and occupational guidance, women psychologists with the necessary specialized training and experience can contribute valuable and constructive work.

(6) Special social problems are already arising in connection with mentally deficient women and girls in neighborhoods of Army camps and in thickly populated industrial centers. These problems are of such a character that their study and attack by women psychologists is strongly indicated.

(7) Classes in reading and writing for men rejected by the Selective Service on account of illiteracy are urgently needed, especially in the South. In some localities work of this kind is already initiated, and it can be organized in connection with local schools on a very simple basis.

(8) In time of war, the training of leaders in civilian life becomes a problem of major and immediate importance. The training of leaders has been the concern of educational, religious, political, occupational, and social welfare organizations since time immemorial. But only in recent years has there been study of the effects of different types of leadership on groups and on the limitations and possibilities for effective training. Needless to say, the great success of totalitarian leaders has brought the matter sharply into the focus of attention of social scientists. The literature in this field offers some suggestions that can be immediately applied in the training of civilian leaders, particularly such leaders as teachers in defense courses, nursery school teachers, air-raid wardens, leaders in clubs of all kinds, or chairmen of emergency committees in small civic centers. Psychologists trained in the use of these methods can at this time contribute to the war effort by applying them to situations demanding the training, or retraining, of leaders.

(9) From psychology departments in colleges and universities throughout the country comes the question: "What shall we include in our courses for undergraduates that will fit them for their part in the emergency?" A group of women psychologists are working on suggestions for content of courses in psychology, on outlines, and on bibliographies which may be made available in partial answer to this question. The material which they are assembling includes mention of courses in child psychology, in mental hygiene and psychiatry, in construction of interview schedules, in statistics and techniques of test construction, in training for group leadership, and in the principles and analysis of propaganda.

(10) Because strong nations must be built by healthy people, food for defense suggests an important part of the national war effort. A diet adequate for good nutrition is now the Nation's goal. Besides the problems of production and distribution involved in this aim, the country will be confronted by an important psychological and educational problem. Food habits well established are known to yield slowly to attempted change. Knowledge of food values essential for health must be spread throughout the country by every possible medium, and the inertia to change in eating habits must be combatted by many psychological techniques. Psychologists can participate in this national program by testing the usefulness and appeal of the various educational materials which will be used in the nutrition campaigns; they can study the eating habits of crucial groups in the country as a base line before changes occur; they can explore the possibilities of "prestige influence" as a factor of change in food habits; they can study the relationship between eating and fear; and they can carry out a variety of applied research projects in this little-explored field of food habits.

(11) The problem of morale is crucial in the present war effort. Social psychology during the past decade has furnished new techniques for studying the phenomena of interacting personalities and social groups and for the measurement, analysis, interpretation, and direction of these phenomena. The psychologist can diagnose and remedy various destructive influences aimed at morale; he can test the effectiveness of propaganda; he can study the morale of special groups and apply methods for its improvement; he can apply his knowledge of leadership training and guidance within the units of our social organization. There are many services that women psychologists can plan and execute in the study and building of morale.

(12) Since this country is to continue to function as a democracy, the adults of the future must be educated and trained and clinics maintained. As men go from our colleges and universities into the armed services, women psychologists will be called upon in ever greater numbers to replace them in academic work for graduate and undergraduate students and in clinical positions. For this task these women are able and ready.

NOTE.—This Subcommittee on Services of Women Psychologists in the Emergency was compiled by Theodora M. Abel, Stuart Henderson Britt, Alice Bryan, Edna Heidebreder, C. M. Louttit, Bertha Luckey, Harriett O'Shea, Helen Peak, Ruth Tolman, chairman.

EXHIBIT 5.—REPORT BY COURTENAY DINWIDDIE, GENERAL SECRETARY, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE, NEW YORK CITY

FEBRUARY 10, 1942.

Because of our interest in child labor and the fact that school systems in many communities are releasing children from attendance in order that they may engage in emergency agricultural work we have some suggestions to offer your committee as to points that should be brought out and as to where constructive planning is needed as follows:

NEGLECT OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR NEEDS

Particularly in highly industrial States the tendency of placement agencies is to give far less consideration to agricultural labor needs than they deserve and to do too little thorough planning in advance for the meeting of such needs. It is in the industrial States that pressure for labor for war industries is greatest. There is always a certain ebb and flow between agricultural labor and industrial labor in spite of the differences in demands for each and the differences in the competence of workers for each type of work. The failure to consider the relative importance of agricultural demands and the failure to plan sufficiently far in advance causes unnecessarily acute temporary shortages in the agricultural labor supply.

We hope that the Tolson committee will bring out clearly what measures are necessary to remedy such conditions and the extent to which the United States Employment Service and other agencies are preparing to do their part in putting these measures into effect.

It would be a pertinent question to raise whether the practices of the State of Oregon, for example, in making careful and thorough advance estimates of agricultural labor needs and in keeping these estimates up to date so far as possible, could not be generally observed throughout the States rather than confined to a few.

Your committee has done a great service in bringing out the extent to which unwillingness to pay wages commensurate with the increases in the prices of farm products has been the cause of claims of shortages of labor which only represent the unwillingness of persons to accept wages at an unjustifiedly low level. We trust that the hearings will bring out clearly how the public will be able to determine whether any such demands in State or locality are due to this unwillingness to pay fair wages or not; what Government agencies will furnish the necessary data for sound judgment on this point.

ADVANCE PLANNING FOR MIGRANT LABOR

In highly specialized crop areas where much planting or cultivating, or both, is done by machinery, the peak loads of demand for hand harvesting is creating a situation which has been clearly brought out by your committee and others who have studied the subject. The problems raised by this peak-load demand for labor, in areas where such farming methods presuppose a migrant labor supply, deserve especially serious consideration in this war emergency. In the past the migrant laborers and their families have had to bear most of the wastage and burdens involved in the transportation of large numbers of workers and their families, often far beyond the number needed, to points of peak demand. The wastage in both economic and human values have been excessive. To the extent that such migrant labor is needed to meet wartime emergencies, steps should be taken to reduce to a minimum the uprooting of families from their homes, denial of education and wholesome living conditions for the children, and the payment of indecently low wages.

Some of the questions that should be considered are: Should there be an extension of the mobile camp program? Should funds be made available and from what source for transportation for migrant workers? With the shortage of tires it may be very difficult for migrants to transport themselves. Cannot the selection of migrants for such services by placement agencies be so organized as to avoid the highly antisocial conditions involved in the transporting of young children continuously from place to place without satisfactory residence or schooling?

In any measures that are being planned is care being taken not to establish as permanent policies, those which are determined to be essential in the emergency, but which involve steps that would not be desirable in peace?

AVAILABILITY OF LOCAL LABOR

Observers of practices in recruiting agricultural labor in the different States are of the opinion that far more should be done in most States in the way of taking a census of available sources of local labor supply. Reports from Delaware, which have not been checked on the ground, indicate that that State has done some very constructive work along this line and has thus avoided, at least to some degree, the problem caused by an inrush of migrant labor with all of its attendant evils.

Registration of adults and older youth willing to do farm work in case of emergency demands could well be carried out long in advance of peak harvest needs. Such registration should not be confined solely to the extremely poor. Too often the tendency has been to look upon poverty as a test of the availability of such workers for emergency service.

LABOR DEMANDS AND SCHOOL CHILDREN

Widespread demands are being heard to release children from school so that they may engage in planting or harvesting. The trend of these demands is unfortunately too often in the direction of releasing children as a first resort rather than as a last resort after careful consideration of all the circumstances and careful planning to safeguard the interests of the children where it is convincingly shown that their work is needed. The National Child Labor Committee has given thoughtful study to this question and you will find attached a statement of the policies which it believes should govern any release of children from school for agricultural labor.

Also, you will find attached a very illuminating digest of statements received from some of the State departments of education of the country with which we have been in communication on the subject. A number point out the hysterical nature of some of the demands for the release of children from school without first ascertaining the real facts and the availability of adult labor. The attached

digest quotes statements from some of the States which have given most thoughtful consideration to the subject.

In other States the State commissioner of education reports working closely with the Employment Service so that release of pupils from school may be on the basis of genuine need and may be guided and safeguarded in the interest of the pupils themselves from the standpoint of their education and their welfare. New Hampshire and Massachusetts have put into effect plans of this kind. Other States are considering such steps but such practices are by no means general or uniform. On the contrary, in many States children are released locally or the school term is shortened with very little thoughtful consideration of whether the need for labor can be met in other ways or of how the children's education and welfare can be best safeguarded.

We believe that it would be most helpful if the House Committee Investigating National Defense Migration could publicize such practices. It is also quite desirable to differentiate between paper suggestions and the actual use of genuine safeguards. For example, in New York State last fall an improvised plan was put into effect for releasing children from school. The chief safeguard proposed was that there should be a certification of the need for the labor of such children by the chairman of the county farm defense council. An examination of 100 certificates of such need on file in Albany (selected at random) showed that in the case of the great majority the date of the certificate was later, often weeks or even months later, than the initial date for which the children's services were asked. Such a paper provision has little if any value for the children.

We hope that the House Committee Investigating National Defense Migration will secure the testimony of competent school authorities on this subject of safeguarding the interests of children. We also hope that the committee will get on the record the availability of reasonably accurate advance estimates of demands for agricultural labor in the various States and of sources of labor supply to meet such demands. It would be most helpful for the public generally to know the extent to which the surveys which are being carried on in the States by the Agricultural Marketing Service will furnish the desired information on agricultural demands, the extent to which such information can be kept up to date and the extent to which the United States Employment Service can outline available sources of labor. The possibilities for the United States Employment Service's acting in cooperation with State and local school authorities and labor departments in outlining orderly, thoughtful, and well safeguarded methods of releasing children from school and supervising their work where it is really essential, also need to be established.

The National Child Labor Committee is deeply concerned with this whole problem because of its relationship to the protection of children with respect to their education and their work and will welcome any opportunity to cooperate with your committee or any other agency concerned.

SCHOOL PUPILS AND AGRICULTURAL LABOR

SOME REPLIES FROM STATE COMMISSIONERS OF EDUCATION TO INQUIRY FROM THE NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

In view of widespread moves or suggested moves for releasing pupils from school for agricultural work, the National Child Labor Committee wrote to the State commissioners of education. They were asked what the experience in their States had been with respect to such releases or proposals for release; also what methods had been found most satisfactory for safeguarding the health and the welfare of the pupils, where they were released, or what methods were suggested.

References to or excerpts from the replies from some of the State commissioners, who seemed most deeply concerned over the problems raised by proposals for release of pupils, follow:

Arizona.—In Arizona 40 to 50 schools permitted school children, most of them 14 years and over, to be absent for work on the crops. Permits were issued, in most cases valid for 1 week. These were renewable when the child submitted home work assignments that had been given. Permits were given only in cases where there was a definite need.

Indiana.—The State superintendent of public instruction on January 19, 1942, sent the following bulletin to city, town, and county superintendents:

"The State board of education at the regular meeting, January 16, 1942, made the following statement:

"The State board of education sees no emergency at the present time, which would make it advisable to shorten the terms of the public schools either by adding more days to the week or more hours to the day or by reducing the number of days of the school term below the established number."

The State superintendent of public instruction writes that, "if a situation arises where it may be advisable for students to assist in harvesting crops, these will be handled as individual cases. The best patriotism and the only patriotism upon which a democracy can rest is that of educating its children. We shall be ready and eager at all times to do whatever is deemed necessary and advisable to further our national defense program. The State of Indiana will, however, maintain a firm attitude concerning the education of the children."

Kansas.—The State superintendent of public instruction of Kansas on January 14, 1942, sent a bulletin to school administrators which stated that they had received a number of inquiries from localities as to the advisability of adopting a 7-hour day or 6-day week for the remainder of the year. The bulletin states:

"Before any such sweeping change is undertaken the State Department, if its approval is given, must be convinced of its necessity. At present it is not. Those proposing these changes perhaps do not realize how far-reaching they are and how deeply they affect the integrity of the public-school system. Before they are agreed to and initiated the absolute need for them must be clearly evident. As was stated before, the State Department is not yet convinced that it is so evident.

"The program of the National Government is not yet so clearly defined as to enable us to see what is demanded of the schools. When that program is clearly set before us we shall all of us be ready to do what is necessary to carry it out. Meanwhile the proposals of those who urge hasty, ill-considered, and ill-devised measures should await developments.

"It would be regrettable indeed if it affected adversely the system of education throughout the State. It is suggested, therefore, that we proceed to deal with the problem for the present at least, on an individual basis."

The bulletin suggested that, when it was necessary, a senior high school student with a record of 3 years and 8 months of good work could be given a special examination, advanced credit, or other acceptable device and be released from school. A similar plan might be adopted for students in other classes in case of real emergency. It adds:

"The State Department makes an appeal for sanity and steadiness in the present hour. Hysteria is by no means absent from some of these proposals. Let us imbue our young people with courage and confidence, and set ourselves against fear and panic. Above all we shall have to defend the structure and support of education from those who unwittingly will do much to weaken it. Someone has said 'The first major casualty in war is education.' Let it not be true of us in this case."

Maine.—The Commissioner of Education of Maine reports: "At the present time the State department of education is working closely with representatives of various State and Federal agencies to determine the scope and acuteness of the farm labor problem. As soon as this information is available an attempt will be made to adjust school schedules in various parts of the State on a basis of the necessity for school children in agricultural work. Preliminary planning has resulted in the following suggestions:

"1. Through the cooperation of agricultural instructors with the Maine State Employment Service to recruit in-school youth to be assigned to farmers needing this labor in the immediate area.

"2. To recruit, in urban areas throughout the State, school youth who can be organized as a mobile labor pool available in any part of the State where a particular shortage threatens.

"Every attempt will be made to prevent disruption of the regular educational program in the public schools. Since our heaviest problem is anticipated during the harvest season, it is quite likely that plans will be made to open schools later in the fall and continue later in the spring."

Massachusetts.—The Supervisor of Agricultural Education of Massachusetts states: "Early in the year, Commissioner Downer sent a letter to all superintendents of schools asking them to cooperate with the State employment service in the matter of enrolling school youths for farm employment. All superintendents

cooperated splendidly in this respect and the State employment office registered 5,500 students. By July, the employment service had placed 351 of these enrollees on farm jobs.

"This registration of school youths had a twofold effect because in addition to the youths placed in farm jobs, 1,034 were placed in industrial employment or as trainees for such employment as well as in various miscellaneous forms of employment.

"In the late spring the Massachusetts Fruit Growers Association, upon recommendation of the department of education, notified their membership to get in touch with their local school authorities and arranged, wherever possible, for the release of school youths from school for certain definite periods in the fall so that these students might assist in the harvesting of fruit crops. In this situation the schools again cooperated and arranged for the release of students, and I know of no great loss in the matter of our fruit harvest.

"At the present time our State is being organized with rural policy and war action committees organized in each town. It will be one of the duties of such committees to contact each farm in their area and find out the number and type of workers that will be needed for the coming season. The State employment office proposed to contact each high school in this State and enroll students desiring to help in farm work this summer. A coordinating organization and war action committee will then work out a scheme by which local youths interested in securing farm employment will come in contact with farmers desiring such an employee and students, in areas where the enrollees are more than the farm jobs are available, will be informed of the employment opportunities elsewhere within the State.

"When we know the number of employees needed, the basic skills that the employer desires them to have, and the names of those enlisting for farm employment, the vocational agricultural service intends to set up training opportunities to give these enrollees some training in the basic skills desired."

New Hampshire.—The commissioner of education on August 28, 1941, addressed a communication to high-school principals "in or adjacent to the apple-growing areas." This recommended cooperation with the State employment service in providing assistance for the apple harvest. It stated: "Arrangements have been made between the Apple Growers' Association and the Employment Service so that all requests for the services of high-school pupils over 14 years of age will be made by the apple growers to the employment service and all arrangements for securing the services of boys to meet these demands shall be made through definite arrangements between the representatives of the Employment Service and the headmasters of the schools.

"The present situation is as follows. The apple growers have been asked to report at once their estimate of the amount of help required and where and when it will be needed. Meantime, the State employment service will contact the head of each high school in the areas where help is needed to secure an enrollment through the high school of students who will volunteer for this service. The registration in the Employment office will be through a student application form which will be supplied to the headmasters of the schools contacted. This refers only to the apple picking program. The form permits the pupil to indicate, if he so desires, any special preference in the employer for whom he shall work.

"This opportunity, under a definite plan of organization, seems a highly desirable one for students physically competent and doing satisfactory work in school, to contribute toward the solution of this problem which has arisen entirely as a result of defense activity."

Four hundred and seven boys, coming from eight high schools, participated in the apple-picking project.

Pennsylvania.—The Pennsylvania Superintendent of Public Instruction reported: "At the present time, the department takes the attitude, and seems to have the support of many Legion posts which have taken action as well as persons in governmental and industrial positions, that the school program of children should not be disturbed if avoidable. In case of any disruption, it should affect only those whose interests could best be served in our emergency program by withdrawing from school or by being in part-time attendance."

It recommends:

1. Excusing pupils 14 years and over who have completed the sixth grade under the regular provisions of the child-labor law through the issuance of farm or domestic service permits.

2. If the absence is to be for a few days only, dismissing the school (provided that the great majority of the pupils are needed for work) and shortening normal vacation periods.

3. As a last resort, shortening school sessions to 4 hours—although this will not be recommended at the present time because it is not believed to be legal.

Rhode Island.—The Rhode Island Department of Education reports that last summer they had an organized program of work for students during vacation periods.

"Through the principals of the schools we conducted a registration of those who could and would be interested in certain types of farm labor, working after school on week-ends and school holidays. We cleared this registration through the Director of Agricultural Extension to the county agricultural agent who contacted farmers directly. The plan worked in a limited way. We found a few weak spots. The plan, with modifications, is under consideration for the coming summer.

"Just now we are attempting to forecast the labor shortage situation in the summer of 1942. If the situation seems to warrant it, we may consider some form of emergency legislation to protect the normal attendance structure after the emergency passes."

Vermont.—Vermont conducted a program, with the assistance of the State employment service, to supply workers during the apple picking season. Thirty-seven schools, mostly senior high schools, participated in this program.

Wisconsin.—The State superintendent of public instruction last fall sent a notice to local school officers, suggesting that, if it were necessary to make changes in attendance regulations due to emergency agricultural work the following be considered:

1. Changing the date of the spring vacation so that it falls at a time when help is needed or, if advisable, omitting spring vacation.

2. Permitting children to be absent to assist their parents during April or May for a limited time and marking them present provided they satisfactorily complete daily assignments.

3. Continuing school on alternate Saturdays during January, February, and March, and closing 1 or 2 weeks earlier.

4. Providing an opportunity, before the end of the school year, for city boys and girls who wish to work on a farm during the summer, to contact farmers.

EXHIBIT 6.—REPORT BY KATHRYN McHALE, GENERAL DIRECTOR, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN, WASHINGTON, D. C.

This association, composed of 73,000 women college graduates organized in 920 communities throughout the United States, is conscious of the large numbers of professionally trained women whose services should be used in the war effort. Some of these women are now employed, others would willingly be drawn into employment to aid the war effort.

A chief difficulty appears to lie in the lack of a national clearinghouse for the placement of professional women. More than one firm has said, for instance, "We can use a woman physicist. Where is one?" And no one has the immediate answer.

It occurs to us that a solution might be found in extending the scope and use of the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel so that it will serve more widely as a national clearinghouse of information about professional and scientific women workers. At present comparatively few women are listed in the national roster, chiefly those who were reached through their membership in professional and scientific societies. We suggest that trained women generally be urged to register with the national roster, and that the roster then be used more extensively for placement. Many national women's organizations, including the American Association of University Women, would be glad to broadcast a message to their members, asking them, when professionally qualified, to fill out the national-roster questionnaire, and would be glad to cooperate in other efforts to have the national roster serve more widely as a national clearinghouse for placement of professional women.

We believe, too, that employment of women in the war effort might be furthered, and numerous problems solved, if the United States Employment Service would arrange to give special attention to the placement and guidance of women workers, professional, subprofessional, office, and industrial groups. As the public employment offices are now set up, no special facilities are provided for the placing of women. Women's departments do not exist, and women interviewers are not

employed for the distinct purpose of interviewing women and securing placements for them. Trained women interviewers, especially interested in the employment problems of women, might do much to educate employers concerning the ability of women to fill many positions for which they are not now used.

Professional and business women do not, under present conditions, think of registering for employment with the public employment offices. If the special facilities suggested above were provided, professional and business and industrial women could be influenced to use the public employment offices as placement centers. National women's organizations, such as the American Association of University Women, could be counted upon to further a program of education toward that end. Furthermore, in many communities having public employment offices the local branches of national women's organizations, including the American Association of University Women, have already registered the training and abilities of their local members, and, if the facilities for women's placement were provided, these local branch organizations would be glad to cooperate with the public employment services in making available the information from their records, supplying the names of women trained and able in certain fields.

A number of the local branches of the American Association of University Women are at present studying ways in which they can assist in the solution of problems concerning industrial women growing out of the war program, and a number of branches have cooperated with public employment offices in efforts to improve the guidance and placement of women workers. The association is directly interested in the whole problem and desires to do what it can to further the employment of women in the war effort.

We wish to stress also the need of clearance between the people who employ trained women and the colleges that give the training. At present there is no Federal agency that clears this information. Consequently the colleges are at a loss to know what training courses they should offer their women students to fit them for employment in the war effort, and employers are at a loss to know how to secure women appropriately trained. A solution might be reached by entrusting this clearance function to a Government agency. Advice and assistance may be obtained from the Committee on College Women and Defense of the American Council on Education, a committee that is now endeavoring to assemble, for college presidents' guidance, information on the present and future needs for trained women.

EXHIBIT 7.—REPORT BY JEANETTA H. WELCH AND NORMA E. BOYD,
FOR THE NATIONAL NON-PARTISAN COUNCIL ON PUBLIC AFFAIRS,
ALPHA KAPPA ALPHA SORORITY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

FEBRUARY 9, 1942.

When the Tolan committee turned its attention to the role of women in wartime industries, the National Non-Partisan Council of Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority visioned the development of increasing opportunities for training and employment of women in our victory program. Indications are that the increasing labor demands will have to be met by the increased employment of women. Increase in the tempo of our productive effort will demand even wider induction of women in those industries now engaged in producing implements of war.

We recognize that a large number of women are already employed in our war efforts, and there is reason to assume, according to facts presented before your committee, that approximately 2,000,000 new workers will be women.

As we shift our manpower from production to the armed forces, it follows that the training and employment of women must proportionately increase. In this connection it is our desire to indicate that there is a vast labor market of Negro women available for war production. And our war efforts demand that they be given equal opportunity in training and employment.

During the first World War, Negro women joined the large and effective army of American women engaged in defense pursuits of all kind. In the war industries in arsenals, in navy yards, Negro women assisted in the making of shells, gas masks, and other munitions. In World War No. 1, employment of these women in mechanical industries alone increased by more than 50 percent.

While it is true that many war industries have undergone technological changes since the First World War, it is also true that women as a whole have become more mechanical-minded. This includes Negro women. Many of them have studiously kept up with the many technological changes in most productive industries. In one instance, a young Negro woman holding a commercial pilot's license and

an aviation mechanics certificate, won the confidence and admiration of a local board of education. The United States Civil Aeronautics Administration sponsored ground and flight instruction classes, which the young woman directed.

Current employment records also show that Negro women have already qualified for jobs in metal foundries. Others are optical goods workers, sheet metal workers, press and punch-press operators. In terms of the huge defense work ahead of us, these are but small dents in today's all-inclusive defense war effort. They indicate, however, a virtually untouched labor supply that proved its worth during the world conflict of 25 years ago.

This labor market is not being utilized to its fullest extent, either as to training or employment. The National Non-Partisan Council feels that this potential market of available labor is essential to the constant flow of war materials.

The President of the United States has already made clear to the Nation that the total effectiveness of the arsenal of the democracies demands the complete utilization of our human resources. Further, that "we must be particularly vigilant against racial discrimination in any of its ugly forms." Therefore, any failure to train and to employ the vast reserve of Negro women will definitely affect the successful prosecution of our victory program.

Together with the rest of American women, Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority believes that there must be the fullest utilization of women in defense industries in order to achieve and quicken total war production.

The Tolan committee is charged with the responsibility of determining the use of women in war production. Alpha Kappa Alpha Sorority urges that the committee give consideration to the important part that Negro women can play in this vast program, and make appropriate recommendations to that end.

JEANETTA H. WELCH, *Representative.*

NORMA E. BOYD, *Chairman.*

EXHIBIT 8.—REPORT BY MARY S. INGRAHAM, PRESIDENT, THE
NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, NEW YORK, N. Y.

FEBRUARY 5, 1942.

Congressman JOHN H. TOLAN,
*House Committee Investigating National Defense Migration,
House of Representatives, Washington, D. C.*

DEAR SIR: The national board of the Young Women's Christian Associations, with its large constituency of working women of varied race and nationality and occupations, is very conscious of the pressures upon young women working in the present scene.

City after city reports Negro women are not being taken into factories, stores, or offices in any large number despite the apparent need for workers and the availability of able Negro workers. There is some expansion of opportunity for these women in service industries such as laundries, cafeterias, cleaning establishments, etc. In some instances definite campaigns have been organized under the leadership of the Young Women's Christian Association to open up better work opportunities for Negro women in employment. To date they have met with very small response. The tendency is to take them on at low wages and for the most part in jobs which have the longest hours and the least desirable conditions.

The next group of workers for whom we find increasing concern expressed is the group of young people who are out of school and who have never had work experience. These young women are being taken on in many establishments again at a low wage, possibly on an apprentice theory, but when proficiency develops, their pay is seldom increased. The hours and conditions of work surrounding them vary, naturally, but are of great concern and should be given very special attention.

In December reports received indicated that young people still in school were being taken on for work after school and on Saturdays, and some even working at night and going to school during the day, and others were leaving school in order to work. The withdrawal of the wage-earning men of the family for military service has naturally increased the need for these younger people to make a contribution to the family income. It is extremely important that the needs of these young people in particular should be given intelligent consideration and

that they should be directed to suitable jobs, that their training should be basic and should be provided under the auspices of agencies qualified to deal with their age and experience as well as with the technical matters involved.

A group of household employees discussing the problem of job change reported as follows: "The problem of job changes was very widespread among club members. Many club girls had changed jobs recently and almost everyone was considering or had considered it in recent months—almost every girl had something of the urge to try some other type of work."

Girls in household employment, store, office, and factory are asking the same questions. Shall I change my job? If so, how do I decide? Where are the other jobs I could do? Could I find a job if I follow my boy friend or husband? Are the jobs I'm trained for no longer to be found? What should I try to fit myself to do?

These and many more questions are of great concern and importance to thousands of full-time workers who need not only jobs but the right jobs. If maximum efficiency is to be attained, the right answers are important to society as well as to the individual. Where are the millions of new or returning workers to turn for the information needed for a sound answer to these important questions? Our information to date indicates that for the most part women have not been admitted to courses or, where admitted, have not taken such courses because of unlikelihood of getting work. We are therefore facing a definite lag in equipping people to meet the needs of the coming situation.

We are also aware of the problems of married women with children returning to either factory, white collar or professional work. The withdrawal of the economic support of their husbands because of military services presses heavily on many of them. They are being sought out by former employers and by public pressure to use their skills in time of need. This raises a series of important problems dealing with the maintenance of the family unit and giving adequate care and protection not only to the young children but to children throughout school life. The British experience raises many serious questions and this is an area which needs much further exploration and study before final conclusions are arrived at.

Another important factor is illustrated by the fact that in several instances girls are making long trips each day to work in jobs which they know will be relatively short-term jobs rather than take work on defense jobs close to their homes. We have gathered in our conversation with workers evidence of the bad preparation which is made for handling a woman labor force by people who have formerly been accustomed to deal only with men. Prejudice against women in specific jobs, failure to accord women workers a reasonable degree of consideration, lack of ordinary dignity in the treatment of workers by their immediate superiors heightens tension and lowers morale. It leads to restlessness and high turnover in the group essential to expanded production.

Closely related to this is the definite prejudice which is expressed all too vocally toward second generation workers without regard to their competence. A number of instances have come to our attention of our girls' changing their names in the hope that they will be less subject to discrimination in getting a job or to prejudice on the job.

We find too many instances of the discharge of some workers and the consequent lengthening of hours for the remaining workers. The reflection of strain from long hours and high speed production are evidenced daily in the change of attitude of our constituency as they come to the Young Women's Christian Association complaining of headaches or other discomfort, preferring to sit and talk rather than take part in active programs. The effect on health of long hours and a long work week does not need to be elaborated here but the necessity for applying our knowledge and eliminating these dangers is evident. The increased emotional tensions which come from uncertainty and change and from anxiety about their men in the armed forces all makes added pressure on the health of working women and raises to greatest importance the question of suitable conditions, hours and wages sufficient not only to meet the rising cost of living but to provide some of the leeway which alone can ease pressure and provide a stake in the immediate future.

EXHIBIT 9.—TRAINING AND TRANSFER OF DEFENSE LABOR IN ENGLAND

Report by Isaiah Berlin, British Press Service, New York, N. Y.

I. INDUSTRIAL TRAINING PROGRAM

It is, of course, desirable so far as possible, to train local people for employment in factories in the locality. In the first place, it enables people to live at home, or at any rate to be near their homes during training and subsequent employment. Further, it enables contact to be established between the training establishment and the firm to which the trainee will go, so that training can be related to the exact work which the trainee will do afterwards. These have been found to be factors of great weight, and when it comes to the training of women particularly the first, since a large proportion of women are prepared to work in industry near their homes but are not prepared to go away (often for domestic reasons are not able to go away). On the other hand it is not always possible to adopt this policy because the distribution of demand for trained workers is not the same as the distribution of supply of trainees, and this is particularly the case when it comes to the training of workers who are expected to have some real degree of skill.

This situation is reflected in the arrangements for training workers under the Government training scheme. Broadly speaking, it is expected that employers will provide the necessary short-term training for persons requiring very little skill, such as machine minders, but with very rapid expansion this is not possible in all cases, since new factories or factories taking over entirely new work may not have the necessary skilled staff to do the training. To meet this the Government have instituted a scheme of short-term training at about 300 establishments, roughly half of which are technical colleges and half employers' works. These 300 establishments, are distributed all over the country, and are primarily intended for the training of local personnel for the local factories in need of them. In addition, the Government runs 35 Government Training Centres, each of which can accommodate from 1,000 to 3,000 trainees at a time if working on three shifts, and these give a course lasting from three to five months and produce workers who have acquired some real degree of skill if only over a narrow range. Here, too, the principal of recruiting and placing locally is observed so far as possible, but some of the Centres are situated in areas where there is a large population but not a very great demand in industry, and these act as a source of supply for areas where the demand is heavy.

UPGRADING OF LABOUR

The upgrading of labour is a process which, in conjunction with the breaking down of the job, is going on continuously throughout the engineering industry. Nevertheless, the Government have felt it necessary to supplement this by a special upgrading scheme.

II. TRANSFER OF LABOUR FROM DECLINING INDUSTRIAL AREAS TO MORE ACTIVE AREAS

There are very few, if any, industrial areas which can strictly be described as declining. The various parts of the country may be more conveniently classified into areas—

- Where there may be more than sufficient labour to meet local demands;
- Where local demands can be met but there is not likely to be surplus labour;
- Where there is no prospect of meeting demands from local sources alone.

In order to make good local shortages of labour for vital war work, every effort is made to find persons who are not already employed on such work and whose domestic circumstances are such that they are able to transfer to other districts for employment on important work.

For the purposes of surveying the national labour resources men and women in certain age groups, in general younger women and men over military age, have been required to register under a scheme of National Industrial Registration. From the information obtained steps have been taken and are still being taken to separate those who are already employed on work of national importance from those not so employed and to transfer as many as possible of the latter class to more important work. Those who are free to transfer to work anywhere may be

required to leave their home areas and by this means the shortage of workers in other areas is made good. Every effort is made to avoid dislocation of industry by prior discussion with employers and by endeavoring to arrange for substitute labour to be supplied where it is essential.

USE OF COMPUSSION

Efforts are first made to persuade the workers to transfer voluntarily, and ordinarily these efforts are successful; persuasion can be made more effective because the Minister has the power to compel.

Compulsion, which is used only when persuasion has failed, is effected under Regulation 58A of the Defense (General) Regulations, 1939. Under this Regulation the Minister of Labour and National Service has power to direct anyone in the United Kingdom to perform any specified service. Ordinarily it is the Manager or Deputy Manager of an Employment Exchange who exercises this power. For this purpose he holds a document appointing him to be a National Service Officer.

There is no statutory right of appeal against a National Service Officer's direction, but since local appeal boards were set up to deal with Appeals under the Essential Work Orders, people who have received directions have been allowed to appeal to these boards. Maximum penalties for refusing to obey directions are, on summary conviction, imprisonment for anything up to three months or a fine not exceeding £100 or both; there are heavier penalties for conviction on indictment.

In practice the great value of having compulsory powers has been shown to arise from their mere existence. The fact that the powers are in the background materially assists the work of voluntary transfer and resort has had to be had to the exercise of powers in only a comparatively limited number of cases. Up to date 67 people have been prosecuted (62 of them successfully) for failing to obey directions to go to new employment or stay in their present employment.

ALLOWANCES FOR WORKERS WHO LEAVE HOME FOR WAR WORK

The following allowances may be paid to workers who are transferred by an Employment Exchange or Trade Union approved for the purpose to work of national importance beyond reasonable daily travelling distance from their homes. The allowances have been introduced at various dates since 1st June 1940. They do not apply to persons transferred before that date.

TRAVELLING ALLOWANCES

A free fare to the job is granted and also an allowance of 5/- or 10/- for the journey according to the time taken. (Payments are slightly less for persons under 16 years.) If the allowance is not sufficient to cover loss of earnings for the period of travel, a worker may be reimbursed for such loss subject to a maximum (including travelling allowances) of £1 per day.

LOANS

Workers who cannot pay their way for the first week may borrow up to £1 from an Exchange. The loan must be repaid from the first full week's wages.

LODGING ALLOWANCES

A lodging allowance of 3/6d. per night (including Sundays) is paid to workers who live and work in the new area and maintain a home and dependents in the area from which they were transferred. In certain circumstances, the allowance may be paid if the dependents have gone to live with friends or have been billeted elsewhere, but the allowance ceases if the dependents join the worker in the new area.

The allowance is payable to married men or unmarried workers, men and women, with similar domestic responsibilities.

SETTLING-IN GRANTS

Workers not entitled to lodging allowances may receive a settling-in grant of 24/6d. after remaining seven nights in the new area. The grant is to help the worker to "settle-in" and meet miscellaneous expenses which frequently arise upon transfer.

Women may receive an additional grant of 10/- when they have been fourteen nights in the new area.

The following allowances may be paid when the worker's dependents join him in the new area :

DEPENDENTS' FARES

The fares of the dependents will be paid by the Ministry of Labour.

HOUSEHOLD REMOVAL ASSISTANCE

Furniture may be removed at State expense and, if the worker moves into unfurnished accommodation, he may also claim £2 for incidental expenses.

CONTINUING LIABILITY ALLOWANCES

Workers who have liabilities on property in the old area, of which they are unable to dispose may receive an allowance of not more than 24/6d. per week towards meeting payment of rent, rates, or mortgage interest or in respect of the weekly equivalent of the net annual assessment for rates where the property is owned outright. In some cases, cost of storage of furniture may be paid. This allowance is not normally payable to workers who have been granted Household Removal Assistance, but it may be paid in cases of hardship.

EMERGENCY ALLOWANCES

The following emergency allowances can be paid to transferred workers in cases of hardship :

WORKER FALLS SICK

Pending admission to hospital or return home a worker not previously entitled to it may receive a lodging allowance of 3/6d per night (or the difference between 3/6d per night and any amount received as Health Insurance or Workmen's Compensation).

A personal allowance of 5/- per week may be paid while the worker is in hospital. Lodging allowances are not however payable.

A free fare can be given to a wife or other near relative to visit a sick worker.

A sick worker's fare home can be paid and also the return fare of a travelling companion if one is necessary.

SERIOUS DOMESTIC EMERGENCY

A worker who is called home for a serious domestic emergency may be granted a free return fare.

None of these allowances is payable where a similar allowance is payable by the employer under customary practice or industrial or voluntary agreement.

Building and Civil Engineering workers on important jobs are covered by a special scheme. They are not eligible for household removal assistance (being mobile workers), but otherwise they may receive most of the allowances described above, although fares, travelling time, and, in certain circumstances lodging allowances, are paid by the employer.

Dockers who are transferred temporarily to work in other ports are covered by special arrangements.

III. PROGRAMME FOR SHIFTING LABOUR FROM NON-DEFENSE INDUSTRIES TO DEFENSE INDUSTRIES AND DESCRIPTION OF ECONOMIC EFFECTS

With the transfer of the nation from peacetime to war conditions the needs of the civil population must be subordinated as far as possible to the ever-growing demands for war production. It has, therefore, been necessary to define certain industries whose normal production can be described as less essential, or whose output for civilian requirements can be severely curtailed.

Two methods are employed to secure the maximum release of labour corresponding to the reduction in capacity in the industries concerned in order that the work people so released may be transferred to vital war work.

These methods are known as—

- The concentration of production; and
- The contraction of industry.

Under the concentration scheme, the firms in the industries affected are encouraged to submit voluntary arrangements for the absorption of the production of one or more factories by another factory, or group of factories, in the same industry. If voluntary schemes are not submitted within a reasonable time, the Government Department concerned designates the factories which should continue in production. Schemes which are approved are put into effect by the firms concerned and labour and factory space is released. Steps are taken to ensure that as far as possible the labour released is in areas where demands for more important work are most urgent and is of the young and adaptable type which can be employed on vital war work.

The responsibility rests on the firms which continue in production to provide a measure of compensation to factories which close down in the same industry. The plant of the closed factories must be kept intact and their proportion of the reduced production is maintained by the firms by whom they have been absorbed. The Government Departments concerned keep a record of the factories closed down and of the workers released, so that assistance may be afforded to the firms to resume normal production after the war.

As regards the second method mentioned above, steps are being taken with the cooperation of the Associations of employers and work people affected, to effect an organised withdrawal of women workers from less essential industries. These will be additional to those covered by the concentration scheme. The scheme may, so far as any individual industry is concerned, be applied generally over the whole country or in particular areas where there is a specially urgent need for women for vital war work. Advisory Committees, consisting of representatives of the industry, are established to advise on labour-supply problems in the industry or to deal with any question of doubt relating to key workers. Normally a key worker is not withdrawn from her existing employment before a substitute is obtained.

Women released under the scheme are diverted to the Women's Auxiliary Services or to any one of a limited number of types of vital war work. In the event of refusal to take up vital work compulsory powers may be used.

SKILLED ENGINEERING LABOUR

A scarcity of skilled engineering labour exists in all parts of the country, and the problem of supply of skilled engineering labour is intensified by inequalities in different parts of the country in relation to demand and the supply which can be made available by dilution. To meet this position certain of the Ministry's administrative regions were required to find stated numbers of highly skilled men of defined types for transfer to other regions standing in greater need of them. In deciding the numbers to be transferred account was taken not only of the extent of the demand for the grade of labour in question but also of the amount of labour which could be expected to be made available in the different regions as a result of dilution, transference of men from less important work, etc. Somewhat similar arrangements have been made in regard to the supply of labour for a few particular establishments engaged on especially important work and for some special classes of work.

These arrangements have been only partially successful in securing the transfer of skilled labour between regions, since regions are concerned to meet their own priority demands before supplying labour for transfer to similar vacancies in other regions.

The comb-out of skilled men for transfer to other regions and to firms within the region in greater need of their services is carried out by the Inspectors of Munitions Labour Supply working under the direction of the Regional Controllers.

Labour Supply Subcommittees of the Regional Boards have recently been set up in each region to assist Regional Controllers to meet demands for labour in the Munitions Industries and in particular to meet demands for skilled engineering labour which cannot be met without special measures being taken to transfer the labour required from establishments in which it can be spared. The intention is that the Labour Supply Subcommittees will encourage Regional Representatives of the Production Departments to agree with the Ministry of Labour

the measures to be taken to secure that labour shortages for work of vital importance are met by the transfer of men from less important work.

IV. SUBCONTRACTING AS FACTOR RELATED TO UTILIZATION OF FULL LABOUR SUPPLY

The Regional Boards of the Production Executive in each Region have attached to them Capacity Clearing Centres, whose function it is to ensure the full and continuous utilization of the available productive capacity. The Centres arrange for subcontracts to be allocated to firms which may not be working to full capacity, thus reducing the load on the parent firm. The effect of these arrangements for continuous review of the allocation of contracts and subcontracts in relation to productive capacity (plant and labour) is to help to secure that munitions labour is continuously and fully employed. Subcontracting is largely used in the building and civil engineering industries. At present close attention is being given to the problem of bringing the small employer into the subcontracting scheme. There is a danger that he may be squeezed out of business by the withdrawal of his labour for important work. A subcontractor can only usefully be brought in, however, to the extent to which he can be given managerial responsibility for a definite piece of work. The Ministry of Works and Buildings is promoting the formation of associations of small employers with a view to some degree of pooling of their resources.

V. CONTROLS OVER COMPETITIVE BIDDING FOR LABOUR

The movement of labour to employers in the general engineering and building and civil engineering contracting industries is controlled by means of the Restriction on Engagement Order. This Order provides that an employer carrying on an undertaking in these industries shall not seek to engage or engage any worker for employment in that undertaking except by notifying the vacancy to a Local Office of the Ministry of Labour and National Service and engaging a worker submitted to him by the Ministry. An exception is made in the case of managers, salesmen, or clerks (other than costing clerks, progress clerks, and draughtsmen) or domestic servants.

It is, however, permitted that engagement of workers may be arranged between employers and Trade Unions which have approved arrangements for this purpose. Briefly these arrangements provide for collaboration between the Unions and the Ministry's Local Offices in order that the Ministry may know what is being done and that Unions may be kept advised of priority considerations. It is also provided that there must be consultation with the Local Office where the Union wishes to place a worker who is already in employment or has left it in order to secure other employment.

The Order also provides that no employer outside the coal-mining industry may seek to engage or engage a worker whose normal employment is in that industry. There is a similar provision regarding agricultural workers. In addition the Essential Work (Coal-mining Industry) Order provides that employers in the coal-mining industry shall not seek to engage or engage any person for work except through a Local Office of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. The Order also provides that a worker shall not engage for work with a coal-mining undertaking except through a Local Office. The Essential Work (Agriculture) (Scotland) Order provides that a farmer shall not engage any person for employment as an agricultural worker without previously obtaining the approval in some form, of a Ministry of Labour Local Office.

There is a Restriction on Engagement Order in similar terms to that described above for the electrical contracting industry and the Essential Work Order for the Shipbuilding and Ship Repairing contains similar provisions as regards that industry.

A very drastic control of the movement of labour is effected by means of the Essential Work Orders which are listed in the Appendix.

The Orders vary slightly but so far as the control of movement of labour is concerned the basic principle of all of them is that the right of the management to discharge and of the personnel to leave is strictly controlled, and is, in general, subject to permission of a National Service Officer and to at least one week's notice.

Apart from the Merchant Navy, Agriculture (Scotland), and Dock Labour Orders, particular undertakings are scheduled on the recommendation of the Government Department concerned that they are engaged on work which is essential to the efficient prosecution of the war or the maintenance of services or supplies essential to the life of the community. To be scheduled an undertaking must sat-

isfy certain requirements regarding terms and conditions of employment, provision for the welfare of employees and provision for the training of workers where this is necessary. Under the Building and Civil Engineering Order a particular site, as well as an undertaking may be scheduled. The effect of this latter provision is to "freeze" all the workers on a particular job, whether or not the undertakings employing them are scheduled.

When an undertaking or site is scheduled none of the employees, male or female (and including managerial staff) may be discharged (except for serious misconduct), nor may they leave their employment without the permission, in writing, of a National Service Officer of the Ministry of Labour and National Service. Provision is made for appeal to a Local Appeal Board by an employer or worker who is aggrieved by the decision of a National Service Officer.

To counterbalance the loss of the worker's freedom to transfer his labour it is provided that subject to certain conditions, persons employed in the undertaking at time rates are entitled to receive as a minimum for each week the normal wage for a normal week at the time rate applicable to them, and those employed otherwise than on a time rate basis are entitled to receive as a minimum for each day (whatever may have been earned on other days) the time rate applicable to them in respect of that day. No payment becomes due under this guarantee unless the amount otherwise earned for the week by time workers or the day by other workers (including any payment for overtime) is less than the guaranteed amount.

In order to be entitled to this guaranteed minimum wage the person concerned must be during the normal working hours: (a) capable of and available for work (the guarantee, therefore, does not apply to periods of sickness or if the person concerned fails without leave to present himself for work during normal working hours); (b) willing to perform any services outside his usual occupation which in the circumstances he can reasonably be asked to perform during any period when work is not available for him in his usual occupation in the undertaking.

Under the Merchant Navy Order all men in the industry are covered by the Order. The Agriculture (Scotland) Order applies to all male farm workers (excluding certain juvenile and seasonal workers) while the Dock Labour Order covers all workers in certain ports.

The General Provisions, Shipbuilding and Ship Repairing, Building and Civil Engineering, Coal Mining, and Merchant Navy Orders also contain certain provisions for dealing with absenteeism and indiscipline.

EXHIBIT 10.—STATEMENT OF JOHN A. COOVER, CHIEF, NEBRASKA STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, DIVISION OF PLACEMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE, LINCOLN, NEBR.

(This statement was received subsequent to the publication of pts. 21 and 22 dealing with the Nebraska situation and is published here as a matter of reference.)

* * * * *

The Nebraska State Employment Service, through its 18 local offices in the State of Nebraska, had an active file total of 43,015 persons who were available for work and seeking work, as of November 1, 1941. Of this total, 31,645 were men and 11,370 were women. The distribution of these persons by the 18 Employment Service offices in the State is indicated below.

Nebraska State Employment Service local office	Total active file	Total men	Total women	Nebraska State Employment Service local office	Total Active file	Total men	Total women
Alliance.....	387	322	65	Kearney.....	775	597	178
Beatrice.....	2,220	1,768	452	Lincoln.....	5,371	4,340	1,031
Chadron.....	230	201	29	McCook.....	407	300	107
Columbus.....	1,347	1,036	311	Nebraska City.....	480	341	139
Falls City.....	468	381	87	Norfolk.....	2,157	1,681	476
Freemont.....	961	773	188	North Platte.....	474	330	144
Grand Island.....	4,731	3,682	1,049	Omaha.....	19,093	13,393	5,700
Hastings.....	1,890	1,383	507	Plattsmouth.....	120	71	49
Holdrege.....	416	326	90	Scottsbluff.....	406	276	130

The total active file of persons seeking employment through the Nebraska State Employment Service for each of the calendar months of 1941 is shown below:

Month	Total	Men	Women	Month	Total	Men	Women
January.....	45,900	37,379	8,521	June.....	46,337	35,769	10,568
February.....	48,086	39,138	8,948	July.....	44,770	34,051	10,719
March.....	47,591	39,079	8,512	August.....	43,818	33,264	10,554
April.....	50,997	40,458	10,539	September.....	43,710	32,741	10,969
May.....	49,552	39,811	9,741	October.....	43,015	31,645	11,370

It should be noted that the active file does not include all persons who are unemployed and who are available for job openings. It should also be noted that a certain proportion of persons seeking work through the State Employment Service are employed. These persons desire to secure different employment.

A report as of October 18, 1941, shows that approximately 2,000 persons are available in the active file of the State Employment Service for selected skilled and professional occupations which are considered essential to national defense. Again, it should be pointed out that this does not include all unemployed workers who are available for employment in these selected occupations.

During the first 10 months of 1941, a total number of 36,041 placements were made through the Nebraska State Employment Service. This, compared with the total of 29,443 made during the same period of the year 1940, or an increase of 6,608 placements—a percentage increase of approximately 23 percent. This increase is attributed to an increased use of the Service by employers, as well as a general increase in the level of employment in the State. Placements of persons in employment outside the State also accounted for some of the increase in the total volume of placements made thus far during the calendar year 1941.

In connection with migration out of the State of Nebraska, we estimate that approximately 13,000 workers left the State either to take jobs in other States or to seek employment opportunities in other States. This estimated volume of out-migration covers the 12-month period ending November 1, 1941, and is exclusive of seasonal labor requirements in connection with the harvesting and processing of agricultural crops. Included in the out-migration estimate are building trades workers who migrated to construction projects located out of the State. It is expected that most of these workers will eventually return to Nebraska. Many will return earlier if employment opportunities are available in the State. The out-migration also includes a large number of young single men who have migrated primarily to the west and east coasts for employment in defense industries. In connection with this group of migrants, we believe that a large number will return to Nebraska if and when employment opportunities become available. While it is characteristic for labor to be attached to a given industry, and, in fact, to a given employer, we do not think this attachment can be made in a period of less than 4 or 5 years. With the uncertainties of defense employment for these migrant workers and the difficult living conditions encountered in the industrial areas, we believe that migration is essentially temporary in character and that the workers will return to the State if comparable employment opportunities are available. Our local offices are continually receiving inquiries and correspondence concerning local job opportunities from former Nebraska workers who migrated into other areas.

In connection with total in-migration as well as migration within the State from the farms to the larger centers of population, we do not feel that we have a measure that adequately reflects this movement. We believe, however, that the movement from the farms, not only to cities in Nebraska, but also out of the State, will constitute a serious problem with respect to an adequate supply of farm labor. While the supply of farm labor was adequate with respect to the requirements for the current calendar year, we are fearful that the 1942 requirements may exceed the available supply.

Related to the total demand made on our labor force in Nebraska is the withdrawal from the State of a total of 6,936 men who were inducted into the armed forces within the period November 23, 1940, through October 31, 1941. This figure does not include approximately 2,000 National Guards who were called to service the latter part of December 1940, enlistments in the Army and Navy and related service, and officers who have been called into training. The figure of 6,936 does include, however, some men who have returned from the service to their homes in Nebraska.

There are several reasons why workers have migrated from Nebraska. In the first place, employment opportunities have not been available to hold the workers in the State. Defense contracts have not been available in the volume necessary to provide job opportunities for our reservoir of unemployed labor. In addition, contraction of job opportunities has been experienced, caused by the scarcity of certain materials and supplies, resulting directly and indirectly from the application of priorities. Wage levels in Nebraska, in addition, have not been so high as in other areas. Low levels of farm income, prolonged periods of drought, and general agricultural depression have also contributed to the movement of workers from the State.

During the past 6 to 8 months, nationally known employers have recruited workers from our Nebraska labor market. These employers have worked in each case through the Nebraska State Employment Service, and their recruiting programs were undertaken through the Employment Service. Points of interview were established throughout the State, and pooled-interview methods were used to recruit labor. Listed below are companies which recruited workers on an organized basis throughout the State, using the facilities of the Nebraska State Employment Service. The estimated number of workers placed with each of the respective companies is also listed.

Name of company:	Approximate Number
Lockheed Aircraft Corporation.....	800
DuPont DeNemours & Co.....	65
Consolidated Aircraft Corporation.....	30
John Deere Tractor Co.....	15

During November 1941, Boeing Aircraft Co. will recruit labor from Nebraska through the pooled-interview method. This company is seeking highly skilled and professional workers for employment in their aircraft factories. It is expected that other large employers holding defense contracts will recruit labor in Nebraska for their outstate plants.

Large aircraft manufacturing companies have also utilized trainees from commercial training schools to meet their labor requirements. Lincoln Flying School, Morton Aircraft, and Frye Aircraft of Omaha have been able to refer their graduates to employment in aircraft companies.

Effective utilization of the local supply of labor, particularly in connection with the production requirements of the Martin bomber plant, requires training of various types to qualify workers to the level of needed skills. To achieve this level, preemployment training is being undertaken through the defense training courses sponsored by the vocational education department of the State. In addition, a program of up-grading within the plant will be required.

Training facilities of the vocational education department have been used during the past year and a half for preemployment and refresher purposes. A large proportion of the trainees who have completed these courses have secured employment in defense industries in other States.

With respect to training courses which are offered at the present time in Nebraska, we are listing below the location, the name of the course, and the number of trainees for each training project.

Two specific defense training agreements have been worked out with defense employers. A power-sewing-machine course is being started very shortly to supply power-sewing-machine operators. Defense training courses in the city of Omaha, sponsored by the department of vocational education, were planned to meet specifically the requirements of the Martin bomber plant which is located in that area.

While Nebraska has lost a portion of its labor supply to defense industries in other States, a relatively large supply is still available in the semiskilled and unskilled classifications. There are shortages in certain highly skilled occupations. These shortages, however, are Nation-wide in character and are not limited to the Nebraska labor market.

In connection with the construction of the bomb loading plant at Wahoo, Nebr., it is anticipated that no difficulties will be encountered in furnishing the required labor force. Also, the semiskilled and unskilled labor requirements for production in both the Martin bomber plant at Omaha and the Wahoo bomb loading plant can be adequately supplied from local sources. Certain classes of skilled and professional workers required for the operation of these plants will have to be recruited from sources outside the State.

Town	Name of course	Number of trainees
Beatrice	Aircraft sheet metal	20
Do.	do.	20
Fairbury	do.	19
Do.	do.	19
Kearney	Acetylene and electric welding	14
Do.	Aircraft sheet metal	20
Lincoln	Machine shop	9
Do.	do.	15
Do.	Foundry	6
Do.	do.	22
Do.	General and electric welding	8
Do.	Acetylene welding	8
Nebraska State Training School	Automotive electricity	9
Do.	Automobile mechanics	26
Do.	Production machine tool operator	27
Do.	Industrial electricity	9
Do.	Pattern making	8
Nebraska City	Aircraft sheet metal	13
Norfolk	do.	19
North Platte	do.	15
Omaha	do.	21
Do.	do.	11
Do.	do.	12
Do.	do.	23
Do.	Foundry	16
Do.	Machine shop	34
Do.	Pattern making	15
Do.	Oxyacetylene and electric welding	17
Do.	Aircraft sheet metal	21
Do.	do.	24
Do.	do.	23
Do.	Machine shop	35

EXHIBIT 11.—A SYMPOSIUM ON THE QUESTION OF THE LABOR MARKET POLICY OF THE UNITED STATES

The following questions were submitted by the committee to a number of Federal agencies and to labor organizations. Their statements follow the questions.

QUESTIONS ON LABOR MARKET POLICY FOR HOUSE COMMITTEE INVESTIGATING NATIONAL DEFENSE MIGRATION

1. Do you recommend Federal assistance for the transfer of workers from civilian to war work? If so, what kind of assistance?

2. Do you recommend that the Federal Government render financial assistance to workers who must migrate to obtain jobs in war production? If so, how should such assistance be given?

3. What deficiencies are there in current statistical data on the labor market? What suggestions for improvement can you make?

4. What current hiring practices hinder the full utilization of our labor force in the most efficient manner? What proposals can you offer for their elimination?

5. Do you think that there is duplication of effort and/or lack of coordination among the different Government agencies dealing with problems of labor supply?

6. Do you think that the defense-training program has suffered from lack of uniform policies and single administrative direction?

7. In your opinion, is a consolidation of agencies needed at this time to effectuate a national labor market policy?

8. Do you think it desirable to establish a department of labor supply and national service similar to the English Ministry of Labor Supply and National Service? Conceivably, such a ministry of labor supply would include some or all of the following agencies: the Selective Service Administration, the Department of Labor, the training and supply work of the Labor Division, the Employment Service, parts of the Work Projects Administration, the Civil Service Commission, parts of the Office of Education, and the farm labor work of the Department of Agriculture.

9. Should such a department of labor supply be a civilian agency?

10. What functions should management and labor organization have in the department of labor supply, if one were established?

EXHIBIT A.—STATEMENT BY CLAUDE R. WICKARD, SECRETARY OF AGRICULTURE,
WASHINGTON

I believe that some Federal assistance will be required for the proper transfer of workers from civilian to war work. I am assuming that expanding the production of food for our own people and for several of the United Nations is very definitely war work. Since the farm labor supply is not distributed properly in relation to the need for such labor, some assistance will be required in transferring farm workers from areas of relative abundance to those of shortage. Assistance in the way of additional training and housing also will be needed.

Due to the shortage of rubber tires it appears that farm workers who must migrate to obtain jobs on farms may need some special assistance from the Government in connection with transportation. While many farmer employers in areas of labor shortage and in areas usually dependent upon migratory workers will, no doubt, be in position to arrange to transport workers, it may be necessary for the Federal Government to assist with this problem through direct methods. It also may be necessary for the Government to give grants to farm workers for all or a part of their living costs during the time when they are moving to areas of job opportunities and possibly for a short time thereafter until specific jobs become available.

The Congress at its last session made additional funds available to the Department of Agriculture for obtaining statistical data in connection with farm labor. We believe that the obtaining, analysis, and interpretation of more adequate farm labor information in this way will be helpful in eliminating previous deficiencies in current statistical data on the labor market.

In some cases farmer employers who, during the past decade have become accustomed to large reservoirs of surplus farm labor, have followed hiring practices in which they have used large numbers of laborers for very short periods, particularly in harvest operations. We believe that many farmer employers will be able to lengthen the harvest season and other periods of peak labor requirement in such a way that by employing fewer workers for somewhat longer periods they may be able satisfactorily to harvest crops and perform other farm operations. The expansion of the Employment Service in such a way as to offer more effective farm placement service both to farmer employers and to farm laborers also should be very helpful. An increase both in the number and in the services rendered by local farm placement offices or employment exchanges should bring about fuller employment of the existing labor supply and bring about some reduction in the number of workers who would be required in an area to perform necessary farm operations.

In the Department of Agriculture we have had contact with many different Government agencies dealing with problems of labor supply through representation on the National and Regional Office of Production Management Labor Supply Committees. Most of our contacts, however, have been with the Employment Service of the Federal Security Agency. We are attempting in the Department of Agriculture to be of the maximum assistance to the Employment Service in expanding and improving its farm placement activities. I am under the impression that the work of the Department of Agriculture and of the Employment Service has been very closely coordinated, particularly through the efforts of the Office of Agricultural Defense Relations. We have not encountered any particular problems of duplication of effort or of lack of coordination among different Government agencies dealing with problems of farm labor supply.

We recognize that as the war program accelerates the problem of the most equitable and efficient distribution of the Nation's manpower, in terms of national objectives, among the armed forces, the war industries, production and service for the civilian population, and the agricultural industry, which is expanding food production in the food for freedom program, will become a more acute problem. However, it had not occurred to us that consolidation of the various Government agencies dealing with labor problems would be needed, at least at this time.

Sincerely,

CLAUDE R. WICKARD, *Secretary.*

EXHIBIT B.—STATEMENT BY FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY OF LABOR,
WASHINGTON

1. Do you recommend Federal assistance for the transfer of workers from civilian to war work? If so, what kind of assistance?—A. The unemployment of civilian workers so transferred should be reduced (a) by spreading available work among qualified workers; (b) by encouraging the absorption of displaced workers into plants with expanding war production programs wherever located.

The Employment Service should first attempt to find work in the locality where the man has previously worked. If that is impossible, they should arrange a transfer to some other community where there is a definite job for him.

I believe that assistance should be given in the form of loans to make it possible for a man to get to his new job. Relief funds should be available to provide for those who are in need.

Unemployment insurance in the social-security program should be extended at this time to meet peculiar needs. It should be on the basis of payroll taxes in conformity with a present program. To extend social security I suggest:

I. Extending social security benefits to as many workers as it is administratively feasible to cover.

II. Enforcement of the provision that benefits continue only if suitable employment is not available, and the provision of funds whereby the Employment Service could make it possible for a man to travel to a job from which he might wish to return when work for which he is best fitted becomes available in his home community.

III. The extension of benefits under the existing payroll taxes to an amount that is financially sound, and the elimination of tax reductions arising out of experience rating provisions of State laws.

IV. If these benefits are inadequate in the circumstances, I would favor a special pay-roll tax to cover the estimated costs of the proposed extended benefits.

2. Do you recommend that the Federal Government render financial assistance to workers who must migrate to obtain jobs in war production? If so, how should such assistance be given?—A. To facilitate and expedite the movement of any substantial number of workers from one area to another, the Federal Government undoubtedly should be prepared to provide transportation expenses for those individuals who require it. It should be recognized, however, that many workers are able and willing to provide their own transportation. In fairness to them and to avoid misuse of funds provided by Government, it would seem advisable that any transportation expense assumed by the Government be deemed in advance against future wages and refundable in whole or in part under certain conditions.

It would appear advisable that any such Government transfer assistance be handled through the United States Employment Service by means of a fund allotment for this specific purpose. This would assure reasonable care and judgment in the selection and assignment of workers to be transferred and would be the most practical method of operating a Government transportation fund.

In the last war there was admittedly much waste of time and money and manpower incident to labor recruiting practice of war industries. Thousands of workers were recruited by representatives of the shipyards and other war-production plants, through the newly created United States Employment Service. These recruits were rather indiscriminately provided free transportation on Government requisitions, ultimately charged against a so-called revolving fund. It is estimated by competent observers that not one in four of these recruited workers remained on the job long enough to cover transportation costs or to be of any material aid in war production. This experience clearly indicates the need for greater care in the selection, allocation or placement of workers to be transferred from one industrial district to another, particularly when done as a Government project and at Government expense.

3. What deficiencies are there in current statistical data on the labor market? What suggestions for improvement can you make?—A. The major deficiencies with respect to current statistical data on the labor market have been filled during the past year through the extension of the work of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Bureau of Employment Security. Two important deficiencies that exist at the present time should be met within the next few months on the basis of current plans. The tabulation of occupational information collected in connection with the Population Census of 1940 is of fundamental importance and should be expedited as much as possible. In connection with the draft registrations in February 1942 and the program for subsequent interview of skilled workers

by the Employment Service, we will secure essential information with reference to the present location of workers with essential skills in occupations in which a shortage of workers exists.

Plans have not yet been completed for taking a complete Census of Manufactures for the year 1941. Such a census will be needed in connection with many problems that will arise in 1942 and 1943 and in connection with the later reconversion of our economy from wartime to peacetime operations. It will also be extremely important to make sure that the sample surveys of the labor force which are now being conducted with emergency funds by the Work Projects Administration are continued in the fiscal year 1943. These surveys should be conducted as part of the regular operations of the Federal Government and would appropriately be conducted by the Department of Labor rather than financed from precariously available relief funds.

At the present time we need more information than exists with reference to the movement of persons not now in the labor market who can be drawn into employment to sustain an all-out war effort. The Bureau of Labor Statistics is cooperating with the Work Projects Administration to make sure that additional information in this important field becomes available through the sample surveys now conducted by the Work Projects Administration.

It may eventually become necessary to have accurate occupational information with reference to the entire working population. It is improbable that there will be need for such information or that such information could serve any useful purpose until 1943. Plans are being formulated by the Employment Service for the gradual extension of registers derived from the draft registration this February. Premature efforts to develop a comprehensive register of all persons would impose such a load on the Employment Service as to cause a break-down of its essential functions.

Additional occasional studies of migration and of the occupational sources from which jobs are being filled are needed. Studies with reference to geographical migration have been conducted in a number of localities by the Work Projects Administration. Information on the movement between occupations is less adequate, but is compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics as opportunity permits.

4. What current hiring practices hinder the full utilization of our labor force in the most efficient manner? What proposals can you offer for their elimination?—A. Certain hiring practices are hindering the full utilization of our labor forces. Indiscriminate hiring by individual employers of highly skilled workers has materially increased turn-over and hindered war production. Subcontractors are competing with prime contractors for the same type of skilled labor. Advertising for labor and the use of fee-charging employment agencies has also added to the confusion and the waste. These hiring practices could be brought under control if employers would clear their recruiting practices, hiring and lay-offs with the public employment offices in order to reduce turn-over and assure the best possible use of the limited labor supply in certain key occupations.

Full use of our labor supply is also dependent upon changes in hiring specifications. Specifications have not been adapted to war conditions. Persons with the same degree of strength, skill and experience are asked for as under normal conditions. Persons with no particular skills must be hired in the future and trained on the job. Skilled workers already employed can be supplemented by less skilled. Physical standards which are so high that few of the now available workers can meet them must be modified. Age requirements must be modified and persons up to any age or handicap hired on basis of ability to perform the task. Preemployment physical examinations eliminate from war industry the same group that is being eliminated from active service in the armed forces and this is wasteful. The persons eliminated in most instances are quite capable of carrying on industrial activity, particularly if they are carefully selected with reference to the type of work. Full use of the supply of female labor, Negro labor, and alien labor will increase the labor market and overcome certain shortages.

5. Do you think that there is duplication of effort and/or lack of coordination among the different Government agencies dealing with problems of labor supply?—A. Yes; there is some duplication, but a better word would be that there is multiplicity of effort with not quite enough coordination. As a matter of fact, there is real cooperation between all the agencies and I doubt if there is much actual duplication of work, but there are a great many agencies dealing with labor supply.

Many of the problems of coordination are now being worked out under Colonel McSherry in the Office of Production Management. The particular agencies that occur to me in this field are the Work Projects Administration, National

Youth Administration, Vocational Guidance, who often do their own labor supply and recruiting, United States Employment Service, and the Labor Supply Division in the Office of Production Management.

6. Do you think that the defense training program has suffered from lack of uniform policies and single administrative directions?—A. The training program has probably suffered somewhat from lack of a uniform program and coordination. Employers and labor have been confused by the number of agencies involved, each with its own techniques of training. More progress might have been made in setting up an over-all training program in defense plants if there had been greater uniformity in approach and purpose on the part of the training agencies and a closer working relationship at the local as well as the national level. Greater emphasis on in-plant training as the most efficient method of training for immediate production would have resulted in fuller cooperation of management and labor in the whole training program. An agreed common program with clear-cut division of responsibility among agencies, a greater use of established agencies supplemented where necessary by emergency agencies would meet the present needs. A single administrative head is not essential if the agreed and authorized program is established, and the time lost in reorganization can be saved by calling on existing agencies to do a specified job where they are.

7. In your opinion, is a consolidation of agencies needed at this time to effectuate a national labor-market policy?—A. I think that the activities of these agencies may need some coordination. Any new action should be based on the existing activities, and rather than disturbing them, they should be allowed to grow together. We ought to work out a program rather than a policy, it seems to me.

8. Do you think it desirable to establish a department of labor supply and national service similar to the English Ministry of Labor Supply and National Service? Conceivably, such a Ministry of Labor Supply would include some or all of the following agencies: The Selective Service Administration, the Department of Labor, the training and supply work of the Labor Division, the Civil Service Commission, parts of the Office of Education, and the farm labor work of the Department of Agriculture.—A. I think our situation is somewhat different from the English situation where the Ministry of Labor had long conducted a public employment service which had offices in every town and in almost every village in England, and where the office was already a commonplace part of national life in a homogeneous population. We have a variety of agencies now, some of which are mentioned in the question. It would appear that more integration of their work should be brought about.

9. Should such a department of labor supply be a civilian agency?—A. Yes.

10. What functions should management and labor organizations have in the department of labor supply, if one were established?—A. They should be members of an advisory committee, giving advice to the administrative agent on all matters which he brings before them.

EXHIBIT C.—STATEMENT BY PAUL V. McNUTT, ADMINISTRATOR OF THE FEDERAL SECURITY AGENCY

JANUARY 29, 1942.

1. Q. Do you recommend Federal assistance for the transfer of workers from civilian to war work? If so, what kind of assistance?—A. Two kinds of Federal assistance are needed in the transfer of workers from civilian to war work. The actual mechanics of the transfer can be greatly facilitated by the use of the United States Employment Service in directing workers displaced from civilian employment to employment in war production. The Employment Service should be informed currently in advance of lay-offs arising from curtailment of civilian production and should take immediate measures to register and classify the workers displaced. The Employment Service should also be informed of current and prospective demands for workers in war production. Armed with such information, the Employment Service can arrange for the transfer and, if necessary, the training of displaced workers. Furthermore, foreknowledge of displacement, when transmitted by the Employment Service to the contracting authorities, should put them on notice of plant facilities and labor available for war production and thereby facilitate the speedy conversion of civilian industries to war work. Up to the present time this machinery has worked but imperfectly. It has been difficult for the Employment Service to obtain the necessary information far

enough in advance, partly because of the uncertainty in the plans of the Office of Production Management, partly because of the lack of foreknowledge by the employers themselves. Furthermore, the Office of Production Management has not found it possible to take advantage of the information that plants were going to close down and to place their contracts accordingly. For these reasons the lag between the curtailment of civilian work and the substitution of war production has been in many cases, longer than it needed to be.

The Federal Government can and proposes to assist displaced workers also by making available to the States grants to supplement and extend State unemployment compensation benefits. A proposal has already been placed before Congress for the appropriation of funds to permit the Social Security Board to increase the eligibility, supplement the benefit amounts and extend the duration of unemployment compensation. This proposal would help meet the financial needs of workers laid off during the period of plant conversion, and would aid in preventing needless migration of workers during this period. It is recommended that this committee lend its support to the enactment of this program.

2. Q. Do you recommend that the Federal Government render financial assistance to workers who must migrate to obtain jobs in war production? If so, how should such assistance be given?—A. The mobility of the American worker has already been recognized as an asset to our economy, and has never been more clearly demonstrated than in the mobilization of manpower for armament production. Willingness of workers to move in great numbers has made it possible to man industries in areas of labor shortage and out-of-the-way places. The voluntary movement of workers in response to job opportunities has, so far, proven adequate. However, if conditions should become such that voluntary individual motives no longer suffice to produce the necessary mobility, the Government might undertake to pay the cost incident to transporting workers from one locality to another if such migration is vital to war production. Under these circumstances the immediate cost should be defrayed by the Government, but should be recovered either from the employer or from the employee. In no case would worker's transportation be paid except where the Employment Service certified to the need of the employer and his willingness to hire the worker. Workers whose transportation costs were so defrayed would have to agree to remain in the employ of the prospective employer, under terms no less favorable than those offered at the time of hiring, for a minimum period, say, 3 months.

3. Q. What deficiencies are there in current statistical data on labor market?—A. (a) *Data on labor demand.*—In order to plan administrative measures to meet labor demands for war production, the administering agencies should have data on the prospective labor demands of employers, available sufficiently far in advance to permit the planning and execution of measures for labor recruitment. The United States Employment Service currently obtains information from some 12,000 employers in war industries concerning their labor requirements 6 months in advance. However, many employers find it difficult, considering the uncertainties of war contracts, to forecast their labor needs; and a number of important establishments, including some establishments operated by the War and Navy Departments, and some plants leased by them to private operators, do not report. The coverage of the reports on anticipated demand should be complete.

(b) *Data on available labor supply.*—The supply of labor available for employment in any area changes rapidly, depending on the level of employment and the inducements currently offered marginal workers to make themselves available. The most comprehensive statistics on labor supply so far available are those derived from the active files of the public employment offices. However, it is well known that these files do not include, by any means, all available workers in any area. Many actually available workers do not use the facilities of the Employment Service; many others are only potentially available, depending on the demand. While there are broad estimates of the number of persons in the United States who might be drawn into war production under certain circumstances, it is extremely difficult to estimate this number for any given area. The registration of manpower now projected under the Selective Service Act will do much to supply the required information on males. However, much of the potential labor supply consists of women and no way has been devised to obtain statistics on their availability, except by canvassing or registering them.

(c) *Data on agricultural labor supply and demand.*—The drain of agricultural workers from rural areas to urban centers of war production, coupled with the increased agricultural production under the "food for defense" program has increased the need for accurate statistics on the agricultural labor market. The

Agricultural Marketing Service of the Department of Agriculture has recently initiated a program for gathering statistics on farm employment which, when linked to the data on acreage and crop production, will permit accurate forecasting and estimating of labor demand in agricultural areas.

The data on agricultural labor supply are even more elusive than those on the industrial labor supply. While there are some workers who engage exclusively in agriculture, a great part of the supply of labor available for farm work from time to time is also available for nonagricultural employment under certain circumstances. It is, therefore, difficult to speak of statistics on farm labor supply, as such, except at a specific time and place. Moreover, it has been found that the number of persons available for work in a specific farming area can be increased, if necessary, almost to the limit of the entire population between 15 and 65 years of age in the area. The greater the urgency of the demand and the more important the crop, in terms of the local economy, the greater the supply which makes itself available. Under these circumstances it has been extremely difficult, if not impossible, to measure accurately the labor supply except to the extent that recruiting devices are successful in producing workers for employment at a given time and place.

4. Q. What current hiring practices hinder the full utilization of our labor forces in the most efficient manner? What proposal do you offer?—A. Hiring practices of three principal kinds are preventing the full and efficient utilization of the labor force. In the first place, the indiscriminate and irresponsible recruiting by individual employers, in competition for limited supplies of skilled workers, has accelerated turn-over and interfered with the production in war industries. Various employers, all engaged in war production of varying degrees of urgency, recruit in the open market for skilled labor who are not to be found except in the employ of other war producers. As a consequence, workers are enticed to leave one employment for another with consequent interruption to production. Practices of this kind might be brought under control if employers were required to coordinate their recruiting activities with those of the Employment Service in order to reduce the turn-over and assure that the available supplies of skilled labor were being used where they were the most urgently needed.

In the second place, many employers have failed to modify their hiring specifications, with respect to skill and experience, to conform to current labor market conditions. Skill and experience requirements established during the era of labor surplus are still maintained, even though they are in excess of the requirements of the jobs to be performed. Many employers have not yet reviewed their processes in order to simplify complex jobs to bring them within the grasp of less skilled workers. Many employers also have not taken the advantage of the techniques of up-grading to make the best use of the skills already available in their plants. It is possible that as the labor shortages become more widespread and more intense, we shall find it necessary to resort to the practice successfully employed in England of having Government-employed inspectors to review the use of labor and particularly the use of skills in plants producing armament.

Finally, much disorganization of the labor market has resulted from discrimination against certain groups of workers on the grounds of sex, race, and national origin. Relatively few employers have fully utilized the resources of female labor, although the experience of the British has shown that there are hundreds of jobs in war production on which women can perform as well as men. Equally important in many parts of the country is the exclusion from the employment in war production of Negroes, solely on the grounds of their race. In many areas also persons of certain national or religious groups are systematically excluded from employment; and the exclusion of aliens is almost universal. As a consequence of these types of discrimination, artificial labor shortages are generated in centers of war production, resulting in excessive and unnecessary immigration with consequent overcrowding and strain on housing, transportation, and other community facilities. To overcome these practices it is necessary that the War Production Board and the Army and Navy use all means at their disposal to persuade employers to drop these artificial barriers to the use of important segments of the labor force. In the Executive orders of the President, in the policies of the War Production Board, and in war contracts themselves, are ample authority for razing these barriers which not only interfere with production but breed disunity and disaffection.

In addition, the requirement by practically all defense, and recently by many nondefense employers, that applicants produce birth certificates as evidence of native birth is onerous in the extreme. Over 50 million of our people were born before birth registration was required in their birthplace. For these, the pro-

cedure of obtaining a delayed birth registration is time-consuming and causes unnecessary delay in going to work when men are desperately needed. The volume of applications for delayed registration is so great that in some States a month or more elapses between the request and the issuance. These States need financial assistance to care for a problem created entirely by the war-production program. Birth certificates must be obtained from the State of birth which is in many cases hundreds or even thousands of miles away from the present residence of the applicant. This is another source of endless delay. All employers should be notified that proof of native birth is necessary only in case of workers engaged in special and secret defense processes and should be informed as to the procedure for proof of native birth.

5. Q. Do you think that there is duplication of effort and/or lack of coordination among the different Government agencies dealing with problems of labor supply?—A. I believe that there is need for more effective coordination among the several Government agencies dealing with various aspects of defense supply. It is essential that we provide for more effective interagency understanding of basic labor supply policy and for continuous review of labor needs and labor market conditions so as to adjust policy to current experience and demands.

The successful prosecution of the war makes it imperative that all the available manpower of this country be mobilized quickly, efficiently, and effectively. In my opinion this objective can be attained without consolidation of the various agencies which are now engaged in the direct recruitment of manpower.

6. Q. Do you think that the defense training program has suffered from lack of uniform policies and single administrative direction?—A. Like all defense programs, the training activities suffered in the early stages from loose organization. The trend has been definitely toward uniform policies and unified administrative direction. The vocational education training has been integrated within the Federal Security Agency by definite procedures, allocating specific functions to the Employment Service, National Youth Administration, and Office of Education. This program has in turn been integrated with the training within industry in the Labor Supply Division of the War Production Board (OPM).

7. Q. In your opinion, is a consolidation of agencies needed at this time to effectuate a national labor market policy? 8. Q. Do you think it desirable to establish a department of labor supply and national service similar to the English Ministry of Labor Supply and National Service? Conceivably, such a Ministry of Labor Supply would include some or all of the following agencies: the Selective Service Administration, the Department of Labor, the training and supply work of the Labor Division, the Civil Service Commission, parts of the Office of Education, and the farm labor work of the Department of Agriculture. 9. Q. Should such a department of labor supply be a civilian agency? 10. Q. What functions should management and labor organization have in the department of labor supply, if one were established?—A. Coordination of policy could be achieved through the creation of an interdepartmental board made up of the heads of the various agencies concerned with this problem. Because of the great importance of the policy questions involved in this field, it would seem to me that such a board must consist of the top policy-forming officials, such as members of the Cabinet and administrative officers charged with similar responsibility.

I am not prepared to recommend the establishment of a Department of Labor Supply and National Service such as is suggested in question No. 8. Such a step would involve many organizational problems, such as that of placing the Civil Service Commission within a Cabinet department. It seems to me that a policy board consisting of the heads of the agencies responsible for carrying on labor supply functions would be a method of meeting the situation without the danger of disorganizing the operations of some of the present agencies whose programs must continue at full speed during the war.

If a Department of Labor Supply and National Service should be created, I feel very strongly that it should be a civilian agency. The Interdepartmental Board which I have suggested as an alternative would definitely include representatives of the Army, Navy, Selective Service Administration, and of the several major agencies concerned with labor supply problems, such as the Department of Labor, Department of Agriculture, the Labor Division of the War Production Board (OPM), the Civil Service Commission, the Office of Civilian Defense, and the Federal Security Agency.

I believe that management and organized labor should be represented in any organization charged with the development of labor supply policy. This might be accomplished through an advisory committee which would actively participate

in the formulating of the program and which would be consulted on all major policy matters. I believe that the actual promulgation of policy and the administrative action necessary to assure compliance with such policy would have to be the responsibility of either the Labor Supply Board or of the administrative head of the Department of Labor Supply, if such an agency is created.

EXHIBIT D.—STATEMENT BY F. H. DRYDEN, ACTING COMMISSIONER OF THE WORK PROJECTS ADMINISTRATION, FEDERAL WORKS AGENCY, WASHINGTON, D. C.

1. Do you recommend Federal assistance for the transfer of workers from civilian to war work? If so, what kind of assistance?—A. Loss of work and earnings caused by the shift from civilian to war industry is compensated in part by existing unemployment compensation systems. Many workers not covered by these systems are expected to be given compensation under the war displaced benefit plan now before Congress. Employment on the Work Projects Administration program is open to those in need of work and not otherwise provided for.

Short-term displacement will be handled largely by unemployment compensation. Over a longer period, those displaced workers who are still out of work and have exhausted their benefits should be given employment on work projects.

If the expansion of armament employment in the future requires the Government to shift workers from one locality to another, it might be necessary to provide financial assistance to move these people. A policy of moving labor as a public measure is not likely to be necessary until the labor market becomes considerably tighter than it is now. Meanwhile, it is probably wise to inaugurate plans to facilitate whatever movement may become necessary, and to consider what kind of financial assistance may be required to carry out the plans.

2. Do you recommend that the Federal Government render financial assistance to workers who must migrate to obtain jobs in war production? If so, how should such assistance be given?—A. As indicated above, financial assistance may be required if Government finds it necessary in the future to transfer workers to other localities.

3. What deficiencies are there in current statistical data on the labor market? What suggestions for improvement can you make?—A. Labor market reports need to be improved. Fundamentally, such improvement depends upon more effective channelization of labor demand and supply through the public employment offices. A considerable volume of reports on labor market needs are based upon theoretical considerations, and operating agencies have difficulty in making effective use of such data.

With respect to current needs the following suggestions are offered:

(a) The various statistical series on employment service registrations, placements, initial claims, benefit payments, etc., need to be improved. The reports of labor shortages by occupations, based on comparison of registrations and employers' reports of labor needs, leave much to be desired. Trained analysts permanently located in the field could interpret these statistical reports and prepare local analyses of the situation with better results than now obtained.

(b) Estimates of labor requirements by industry have been too few. Over-all industrial analyses by broad geographical regions, tied in with war needs, are essential.

(c) Existing statistical data relate principally to manufacturing industries. More information is needed on nonmanufacturing industries.

4. What current hiring practices hinder the full utilization of our labor force in the most efficient manner? What proposals can you offer for their elimination?—

A. Despite the efforts of Government agencies and individual employers, recruiting is still done on an unorganized, competitive basis, without regard for the most effective utilization of labor available in each locality. Discriminations against minority groups, aliens, Work Projects Administration workers persist to the detriment of the war effort and public morale.

Recommendation is made for (a) fuller utilization of employment offices; (b) adequate number of offices and staffing of such offices with operating personnel; (c) the required use of such offices as they develop to the point where they can adequately serve employers' needs.

5. Do you think that there is duplication of effort and/or lack of coordination among the different Government agencies dealing with problems of labor supply?—A. Yes. Efforts have been made to overcome these deficiencies by establishment of committees. However, when representatives on these committees are

responsible to different agencies each following its own policy, it is exceedingly difficult to formulate a uniform labor supply policy, to effectuate such policy efficiently, and to fix responsibility.

6. Do you think that the defense training program has suffered from lack of uniform policies and single administrative direction?—A. Yes.

7. In your opinion, is a consolidation of agencies needed at this time to effectuate a national labor market policy?—A. Complete consolidation is not practicable because of diversity of interests among interested agencies. Parts of interested agencies might be consolidated and final authority concerning labor supply given to a single labor supply agency.

8. Do you think it desirable to establish a department of labor supply and national service similar to the English Ministry of Labor Supply and National Service? Conceivably, such a ministry of labor supply would include some or all of the following agencies: The Selective Service Administration, the Department of Labor, the training and supply work of the Labor Division, the Civil Service Commission, parts of the Office of Education, and the farm labor work of the Department of Agriculture.—A. The establishment of such an agency would undoubtedly contribute to the solution of the problems of labor supply.

9. Should such a department of labor supply be a civilian agency?—A. Yes.

10. What functions should management and labor organization have in the department of labor supply, if one were established?—A. Labor and management should be represented in the establishment of policy.

EXHIBIT E.—STATEMENT BY WILLIAM GREEN, PRESIDENT, AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

1. The Federal Government must take responsibility for planning for the fullest use of production facilities and workers to assure adequate material equipment for our armed forces when and where needed.

The Federal Government must take responsibility for the rapid transfer of workers from civilian to war production in order that few man-hours of labor may be lost. The central agency in this transfer is the United States Employment Service. This agency should, of course, work in cooperation with union officials, especially in those unions which have developed extensive placement facilities for their members and those which have provided in their contracts for placement through the unions.

Training on the job is basic in efficient transfer of workers to war work. The Government should encourage employers to institute such training, and should require it when contracts are placed for war work which involves the complete or partial abandonment of former civilian output in any plant or industry.

In order to plan effective transfer of workers to war work, two kinds of information are needed by plants, localities, and regions: (1) A continuous inventory of plant facilities and their potential war production, so that we may know where contracts can be placed to get needed goods without delay; and (2) a paralleling inventory of work skills available and the work experiences of all employees. The employment agency is the agency to make inventory of skills, and to determine where and what types of training should be given for the work.

My second recommendation respecting transfer of workers to war work is that we should immediately set up an adequate national system of unemployment compensation to tide workers across the period between jobs if they are not placed immediately when civilian work is stopped. The State laws have proved inadequate to the task. It is estimated that some eight millions of workers will be affected by conversions—some continuing at war work, some losing their jobs. The Labor Division of the War Production Board with the Administrator of the Federal Security Agency have presented an emergency plan to provide Federal funds to supplement State payments to workers displaced by priority or limitation orders to bring the total benefits up to 60 percent of their normal wages to a maximum of \$24, paid for a period of 26 weeks. This supplementary Federal payment is necessary only because we do not have adequate benefit provisions under the 51 separate State laws. Unemployment is a national problem and, like placement through employment offices, should be met by a permanent Federal program.

The post-war readjustment to civilian work will be more rapid and more devastating in its impact on jobs than this transfer to war production has been to date. We must not come to that period without a strong national program for finding work for those who want it and paying adequate compensation pending

placement. The Federal Government recognized the national character of the unemployment problem when it instituted national work relief programs during the depression. Unfortunately, that lesson was not applied when we provided for statutory compensation for unemployment by States. We should correct that mistake now and establish a single unemployment compensation fund with adequate benefits for all workers who are unemployed through no fault of their own.

A national system could easily, and should, provide compensation for those patriotic workmen who are building defense bases for the Nation's safety on our island outposts and on foreign shores leased to us. Many workers who are now wholly without protection against unemployment should be brought under such a single national system.

My third recommendation is that whenever the transfer of workers to war work involves moving large numbers of men and women to communities not large enough to provide proper living facilities, the Federal Government should be responsible for providing directly, or by grants-in-aid to the communities, or through supervised commercial agents, proper living quarters, eating facilities, and adequate community services for health, welfare, education and recreation. Especially when large new plants are erected in rural areas, the Federal Government should require as a part of the community planning the erection of adequate facilities for the workers who necessarily will be brought from other communities.

2. Whenever the United States Employment Service, unable to fill job orders locally, finds for the employer men and women who are willing to move to the community where war work is available, the employer should pay the travel expense. It might be possible to consider that expense part of the production costs for which the employer would be reimbursed.

The most desirable as well as the most economical employment practice is that of hiring local workers, as far as they are available. Orderly hiring practices through union offices and the United States Employment Service should discourage unnecessary movements of workers to new areas on the chance of finding work there.

If shifting workers involves their moving so far from home that they must dispose of property and move their families, the Federal Housing Authority might be able to help such persons to work out home exchanges so that the worker would not only not lose his equity in his home but would have a satisfactory dwelling in his new location.

The purpose of this assistance should be to facilitate necessary transfer of workers to defense jobs without loss to them in the shift but not to encourage unnecessary migration.

3. The Bureau of Employment Security has excellent statistical data on the labor market and labor supply available in selected occupations. Its general use is limited to some extent by the lag before its publication. Undoubtedly the data are available for use by future Government agencies even before publication. Some difficulties in reporting future needs may develop if certain types of production are considered too confidential to permit open reporting.

The difficulty in preventing unemployment, as I see it, is not with the data on labor supply currently available, or even the forecasts of employers' demands, though they have sometimes been wide of the mark, but rather, that we lack an accurate picture of our production potential in every plant, hence we do not know where contracts can be placed to maintain maximum production and where both machinery and manpower could easily be converted to war production.

I believe the Government agency in charge of production and the employment service in charge of all matters pertaining to labor supply and training need to collect and exchange information on the industrial potential and the labor skill potential for war production in each plant, that contracts should be placed to utilize production capacities to the full, and that training on the job be undertaken in fields in which the employment service study shows labor shortages will otherwise delay production. Workers will help in training and conversion of machinery if only their production capacities are included in plans for production.

4. The practice of Army and Navy Procurement Divisions of awarding the overwhelming proportion of their orders to a few large concerns and the failure of those concerns to subcontract substantial portions and profitable portions of their orders to small manufacturers, has resulted in the displacement of many skilled workers while other unskilled workers were being hired and trained in other plants to do jobs those skilled men were immediately ready to do. For example, we have affiliated with the American Federation of Labor a Union of Metal Polishers. Many of their members, highly skilled men, were working

for independent contractors who for years had done polishing of parts under contract from automobile companies. Yet when these same companies got large Government orders for airplane production, they expanded their plants to set up their own polishing departments, duplicating existing facilities unnecessarily and adding to the load on the machine-tool industry. They are training unskilled men to do polishing and are spoiling much valuable material in the process, while the skilled platers and polishers are thrown out of work by the end of automobile production and are not given the new aircraft work to do. Skilled workmen, scarce material, and valuable time are all being wasted because the work was not being put out but was kept to enlarge the company receiving prime contracts.

One automobile company has installed nine new polishing lathes for its aircraft work, while modern lathes and skilled men are idle in the same city. A large aircraft company built a whole new department and duplicated available existing equipment for plating, polishing, and buffing. They have set up their own training school and are taking on men at about half the wages of skilled workers who could be hired right now. Those untrained men are spoiling an enormous quantity of material seriously needed for defense work. An old established metal plating and polishing concern reports that it has been receiving material spoiled by the unskilled workers at that aircraft company, with instructions to strip the valuable metal and do the work over again in its own shop. They could have done the job right if it had been given to them in the first instance. Training should be given when skilled workers are not available, but it should not serve as a means of breaking down skills and getting cheap labor at the expense of unemployment of skilled men, waste of materials, and duplication of machinery and plant facilities now idle.

Another bad situation occurred in the stove industry, which, as a whole, has suffered from priority and limitation orders. In some places skilled stove mounters were kept at their regular jobs while men were brought in from other communities for the new defense work the plants were undertaking. Then when stove output was curtailed, these men could not continue their normal jobs and could find only unskilled work to do at half their former wages. They should have been given a chance to qualify or take training for the more highly skilled defense jobs instead of bringing in new workers from outside communities. This is a common complaint—that new workers were brought in without an adequate attempt to use the existing local supply first.

One aggravated case of that sort is occurring in Indiana, where a large aluminum company is bringing in a great many new workers from the farming area for miles around while another company in the same city is giving its men only 2 or 3 days of work a week because its production of parts for refrigerators has been sharply cut. These skilled men are not earning a satisfactory income on part-time work, yet they are not permitted to go to the plant which is hiring new men because the latter has agreed not to take any worker from the other plant unless the management has released him, which it will not do. Their skills are being wasted because of obstructive employment practices of the two companies, and farm workers who are needed to produce the Nation's food supply are being hired away from the farms and brought into a city which has unused labor supply.

The local employment service should be responsible for determining when training is necessary and when workers must be recruited from distant communities.

Some employers are still discriminating against older workers. Men in their fifties and sixties find it hard to get a chance to train for new jobs when their old ones are lost, or even to get jobs unless they possess high degrees of skill. Often the employer prefers to import younger men than to use older ones available in the neighborhood in spite of the fact that these men would be competent to do the job. The Employment Service has made an effort to correct this situation, but it is still hampering full utilization of the labor force in many places.

The key to effective use of labor is widespread placing of war contracts so that workers may have the jobs brought to their home communities instead of wasting time and money traveling to find work elsewhere.

5 and 6. There has been confusion in the training field through failure to use existing agencies to the fullest extent. Practically 90 percent of all training must be done on the job. Whatever preemployment training is given cannot take more than a week's time, for production must get under way. The agency already in the field which can be safely and effectively expanded to take care of all in-plant training is the Division for Apprentice Training in the Department of Labor, headed by the Federal Committee on Apprentice Training. With experience and responsibility for apprentice training, this committee can break down apprentice

courses into training for single operations so as to get workers into production and provide for promotions and continued learning. In-plant training in the factory should be planned and supervised by the joint apprenticeship committee. This committee should arrange with vocational schools for whatever related instruction may be necessary.

Preemployment war training should be arranged for by vocational schools when notified by the United States Employment Service.

Only an educational agency with the necessary standards and safeguards should be concerned with training.

7. The first step in effectuating a national labor market policy is to locate responsibility in some one person or agency and to give representation to those concerned in the formulation of guiding principles—employers and workers.

Experience up to the present time has demonstrated the impossibility of getting effective cooperation between various governmental agencies unless authority is definitely lodged in some individual or agency together with responsibility for the whole program. What is involved in labor supply is planning so that our citizens are wisely distributed between war production, military service, and strategic civilian production and services so that our total national efforts progress regularly. The primary agency, as I have said before, is the Employment Service. Its work must be coordinated with that of the Selective Service Administration.

There is no conclusive reason for combining management of labor supply and control over war production in one agency. On the contrary, the fundamentals underlying planning for the mobilization of human beings, have their roots in our philosophy of life.

With definite responsibility for administration of labor supply and the counsel of an advisory committee consisting of equal number of employers and employees, policies equally mindful of the welfare of human beings and of the needs of a world war could be expected which would facilitate action on national-emergency problems. The work must be carried on through the Employment Service aided by social-security provisions, the war-training agencies, the War Labor Board, and the Conciliation Service. Its work must be coordinated with the Selective Service Administration and the needs of civilian defense.

Collective bargaining through chosen representatives is the only democratic way of deciding the basis for joint relations between groups. The advisory committee system with representatives designated by the group concerned carries this procedure into governmental administration. It provides a democratic check on blanket grants of power, and keeps the Government in touch with practical needs and experiences. The representative committee performs in the administrative field a function similar to that of union executives in the economic field.

8. Planning of labor supply for war production is coequal with planning of materials and should be organized independently. It is important to have simple, direct machinery so that allied or related interests shall not be able to develop degrees of control to promote their own ends, thereby diverting the main effort. The machinery should be centralized for policy-making but decentralized for putting policies into effect. Planning labor supply is planning human life. Free men and women are responsible for directing their own lives. Obviously we can delegate that responsibility only in limiting degrees and to representatives of our own choosing if we intend to maintain personal freedom.

We are shifting from a civilian to a war economy. Our Government is responsible for the most stupendous war-production program ever formulated. National economic planning for total war effort replaces the planning in individual enterprises. The War Administration makes plans for war production which take priority over civilian production. The efficiency of that transition is in proportion to the care with which the placement of contracts is made. If this placement is made in the light of inventories of machine tools and other production facilities and the available labor supply so that work skills and machines are used to capacity, not production resource is discarded wastefully. The maximum of waste of facilities and delay in getting out production comes from continuing to rely upon competitive bidding for contracts. The net result of that procedure has been to concentrate contracts with the largest companies and to rely upon these companies for distribution of the volume by subcontracting. Small companies have no place in war production and cannot stay in business. There can be no constructive labor supply planning until production is allocated on a negotiated basis.

For purposes of policy-making the agency responsible for mobilizing labor supply should be independent of the agency mobilizing for the material side of production. Labor policies should—as in a civilian economy—be determined independently. The primary need in initiating labor supply administration is the United States Employment Service recently nationalized to facilitate administrative operations. It reaches maximum efficiency when all workers seeking jobs register with the Service and all employers seeking workers register their immediate and prospective service. In addition to certifying workers of the locality to jobs in the vicinity, the Employment Service must decide when more and different training is needed and when workers must be sought in other localities. Its file of information will indicate occupation trends and the interrelationship of work skills basic in adapting past training and experience to new jobs. Union placement work can be coordinated under this primary agency as can the special agencies charged with welfare services, but the Employment Service must be in control.

9. It is essential that such an agency should be directed by a civilian and that personnel and procedure should be civilian.

10. In order for such an agency to operate most effectively and with the fewest mistakes possible, such an agency should not only have an advisory policy committee of employers and employees at the Federal level, but should have similar committees advising in administrative matters at each level of operation, regional and local.

EXHIBIT F.—STATEMENT BY A. F. WHITNEY, PRESIDENT, GRAND LODGE
BROTHERHOOD OF RAILROAD TRAINMEN, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Question 1. I favor Federal assistance for the transfer of workers from civilian to war work. Such assistance should include the aid of the Government in placing employees in work, with comparable pay, and locations as nearly the same as those formerly enjoyed by the employees. This necessarily comprehends a unified supervision such as only the Government can give. Transfers from civilian to war work should not involve unnecessary hardships upon any employee, such as might be the case if employers were permitted to make the transfers without the voice of labor and the Government being made effective.

Question 2. I favor Federal financial assistance to workers who must migrate to obtain jobs in war production. This assistance should save the employee from losses entailed as a result of leaving a house on which he may have a mortgage, and should include transportation costs for the worker, his family, and his personal and household effects.

Question 3. I have no helpful suggestions to offer with reference to improving current statistical data on the labor market.

Question 4. One of the current hiring practices that hinders full utilization of our labor force is the refusal to employ men over a needlessly low maximum age limit. This is especially true in the railroad industry, and it results in the sacrifice of the services of men with years of valuable experience. Furthermore, such men are too old for military service.

Questions 5, 6, and 7. I have the general impression that a greater centralization and coordination of governmental agencies and efforts would be helpful. Our great national effort should be and is one unified program to achieve victory. The individualistic policy of "business as usual" necessarily runs counter to a unified national effort. It, no doubt, results in needless migration of labor and in the failure to locate workers with a maximum efficiency in the employment of their services and a minimum of sacrifice to the individual worker.

Question 8. I do not believe it would be necessary to establish a separate department of labor supply; it would seem to me that it would be sufficient to achieve a greater centralization and coordination under our existing Department of Labor. Just as the Department of Commerce serves the interests of business, so all of the interests of labor should be coordinated under the Department of Labor.

Question 9. The establishment of any department of labor supply should be a civilian, rather than a military agency.

Question 10. Labor has nothing to sell but its services and certainly it should have a voice in directing the utilization of these services. Labor's voice should be expressed through its legitimate democratic organizations and its representatives should be selected by the workers' own organizations.

EXHIBIT G.—STATEMENT BY PHILIP MURRAY, PRESIDENT, CONGRESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONS

The most essential resource of this Nation in war is its manpower. In war, that manpower must be so distributed and so utilized that every person's capacity is used to its maximum for the Nation's welfare.

All the questions relating to manpower are in essence labor questions and are, therefore, of concern above all to labor.

Manpower in wartime is indivisible. The men in war production are just as essential to military strategy as the soldier. Only by a sound balance of manpower between the armed forces and industries can a maximum effort be made.

There are at least three major aspects of the manpower job—

1. The proper division of the working force between the armed services and industrial life.

2. The adjustment, allocation, and training of industrial and civilian manpower to the maximum possible use.

3. The maintenance of the work force at fullest efficiency both physically and mentally.

FAILURES OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM

There are now some 20 agencies or bureaus scattered among several departments which carry on functions vitally affecting manpower in one way or another. For the most part these agencies are uncoordinated with one another. They are subject to controls from several sources which conflict. Several of the agencies are not yet equipped to carry out the functions that they should perform and many gaps of function exist.

Most serious of all is the lack of a single policy-making agency on the whole question of manpower. This lack has caused the most bitter and unseemly struggle for control on the part of the various agencies in the field. It has prevented the establishment of a coherent manpower policy and of effective agencies to carry out such policy.

WHAT SHOULD BE DONE

The direction of all manpower problems should be immediately vested in the Department of Labor. This would serve two fundamental purposes, first it would concentrate under one head all policy and operations relating to manpower. This is the most necessary reform in the whole picture. Secondly, it would place all aspects of the questions most vitally affecting labor in the war mobilization in the hands of the Labor Department where by function, by definition, and by tradition it rightfully belongs. All manpower questions in Great Britain are in the hands of the Ministry of Labor presided over by the trade-union leader, Ernest Bevin. It is acknowledged by experts that the British have done one of their best jobs in the field of manpower.

LABOR AND INDUSTRY PARTICIPATION

The fundamental lesson which the British experience teaches is that success in handling manpower can come only by the full participation of organized labor and industry in the policy and operation of the manpower agencies. This principle must be effectively recognized in the American approach to the problem. So far, this recognition has not been forthcoming.

The task of effectively utilizing manpower is so tremendous and carries with it such dislocations in the accustomed way of doing things that it can be accomplished effectively in a democracy only by the willing participation and cooperation of employer and employee.

EXHIBIT 12.—1942 OREGON AGRICULTURAL PLACEMENTS PROGRAM

STATEMENT BY L. C. STOLL, DIRECTOR FOR OREGON, UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE IN OREGON

Part 1. Scope of Employment Service agricultural program.

Part 2. Administrative organization of farm-placement program.

Part 3. Analyzing the demand for agricultural labor (sources, methods, etc.).

Part 4. Analyzing the supply of agricultural labor (sources of labor supply).

Part 5. Administrative correlation of "demand" and "supply" data.

Part 6. Execution of the farm-placement program (methods, procedures, etc.).

Part 7. Conclusion.

APPENDIX

Agreement between extension service of the State college and United States Employment Service in Oregon—Local agricultural labor subcommittees.

Agreement between Farm Security Administration in Oregon and United States Employment Service in Oregon—Employment practices in farm security camps.

Requested seasonal agricultural branch offices of United States Employment Service in Oregon, 1942.

Chart of recommended mobile camp locations for 1942, showing locations and duration.

United States Employment Service in Oregon: Registration referral and employer order forms used in seasonal agricultural placement.

United States Employment Service in Oregon: Weekly agricultural labor report submitted by local offices.

United States Employment Service in Oregon: Weekly report of agricultural placements submitted by local offices.

United States Employment Service in Oregon: Statewide summary of crop status and labor supplies and demands.

Comparative statement of labor demands of canneries in Oregon, 1939, 1940, 1941.

Agricultural Committee of Oregon State Advisory Council to United States Employment Service—Statement of purpose and list of members—Sample committee agenda.

Oregon census of women—Steps in conducting census of women—Sample registration form.

Census of school youths—Oregon plan for work registration of school youths—Sample registration form.

1942 AGRICULTURAL LABOR PROGRAM

I. SCOPE OF EMPLOYMENT SERVICE AGRICULTURAL PROGRAM

Into the farm lands of Oregon could be crowded the entire States of Vermont, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Delaware, and Massachusetts. Gross farm income during 1940 exceeded \$111,000,000.

Farm-land maps of the State show heavy concentrations of cultivation scattered unevenly over the State. The major block centers in the Willamette Valley but other commercially farmed areas are located near The Dalles, Pendleton, Ontario, Bend, Klamath Falls, and in the entire coastal region.

The major agricultural problem of the Employment Service in Oregon is that of supplying labor for seasonal cultivating and harvesting operations. Until the potential sources of agricultural labor for the year 1942 were examined, our past experiences had indicated that labor permanently attached to farms was able to carry the maintenance and regular farm-work loads without special attention to recruitment problems. However, it is the opinion of the agency that anticipated stringencies in year-around farm labor will necessitate added attention to the regular farm land problem in 1942.

Demands for additional, temporary workers during regular recurring annual periods have necessitated planning activities on a year-around basis. From early in April until well into November, seasonal labor requirements for sugar beets, potatoes, lettuce, onions, strawberries, cherries, beans, prunes, nuts, peas, apples, pears, hops, and tomatoes follow and overlap each other in a manner requiring continual planning and adjusting of the available labor supply. From December through March plans are formulated for correlating the next year's anticipated supply with its anticipated demand for seasonal workers.

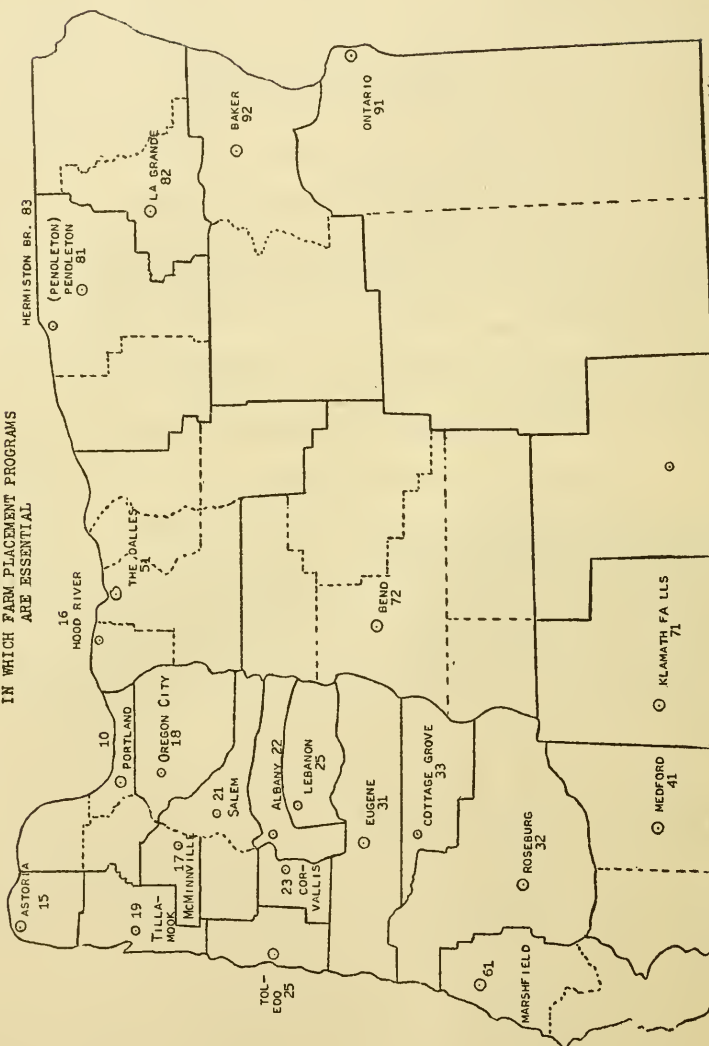
In addition to supplying seasonal and year-around workers to farmers, growers, etc., 1942 estimates indicate that considerable attention will have to be paid to demands of canneries, principally fruit and vegetable processors. (See appendix for comparative statement of cannery labor demands for 1939, 1940, and 1941.)

The Oregon State Advisory Council to the United States Employment Service has created a permanent committee to study and make recommendations concerning agricultural problems.

This committee has performed yeoman's service in bringing the attitudes of farmers, growers, producers, and processors throughout the State to the attention of the Employment Service director for Oregon.

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
IN OREGON

LOCAL OFFICE AREAS
IN WHICH FARM PLACEMENT PROGRAMS
ARE ESSENTIAL



S-7069

2. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF FARM-PLACEMENT PROGRAM

The magnitude of Oregon's agricultural problem in comparison with its other placement activities dictates a complete farm-placement program on both the administrative and local office levels of the Employment Service. Directly responsible to the State director has been established a Farm-placement supervisor. He is administratively responsible for planning the agricultural program. Functional authority—the determination as to how the local offices shall pursue the farm program—is also vested in this officer. Line authority, however, lies with the regular area supervisors and local office managers. In practice it has been demonstrated that these lines of authority grow vague in direct proportion to the intensity of current farm-placement needs. On many occasions there is little time for determination of proper line procedure. Often the failure of a crop hangs in the balance, waiting the cumulative recruitment efforts of the combined administrative and local office staffs.

Both administrative and functional powers of the farm-placement supervisor are delegated—that is, he determines local office procedures and the methods of analysis employed in the administrative office, with the director, of course, retaining final vetoing authority over decisions involving administrative policy. The farm-placement supervisor, a stenographer, and one senior employment officer constitute the Farm Placement Division on the State administrative level. Part-time efforts in the program are made by some three to five members of the research and statistics division in the analysis of statistical data and the preparation of agricultural reports.

Each local office maintains a designated farm-placement representative responsible to the local office manager. He is a regular local office staff member and takes part in other placement activities when time permits, but his primary responsibility is farm placement. In like manner, the entire local office personnel often assists him during harvesting periods.

In addition to the local farm-placement representative in each outlying office two, and often three, such representatives are maintained in the Portland local office. By themselves, these men could not handle Oregon's seasonal farm program. Regular employment officers, therefore, are assigned temporarily to seasonal placement offices and Farm Security Administration camp offices as they are needed. Any statement as to the total number of personnel used in the 1941 farm program would be misleading. The seasonal character of labor demands in Oregon allows the same employment officers to be used in several temporary offices during a single season. The use of four or five experienced farm-placement men for continuous special assignment at temporary offices and Farm Security Administration camps is contemplated. The additional officers required will be temporarily detailed from regular local offices.

Integration of administrative planning and local office operation in the conduct of the farm-placement program is accomplished through the regular line of authority. Procedures, analyses, suggestions, etc., prescribed by the Farm Placement Division on the State administrative level, are put into effect and carried out by line officers, field supervisors, local office managers, and farm-placement representatives on the local office level. It should be emphasized that in exercising his functional delegated powers on the local office level the farm-placement supervisor spends considerable time in the field, counseling and advising the line personnel on farm problems.

Other staff officers in the administrative office give freely of their time in analyzing labor markets, anticipating demands and supplies of labor, and in sustaining the flow of informative materials, instructions, interpretations, etc., between the administrative and local offices. The Division of Research and Statistics is outstanding in its cooperative efforts. Upon this division falls the immense task of compiling and analyzing the numbers of reports, surveys, and questionnaires gathered in the normal course of anticipating future agricultural labor markets.

Since Oregon is primarily an agricultural State, an active farm-placement program is a major and definite phase of the activity of each of our 24 local offices. In addition, some 14 temporary offices were established at strategic points in 1941 to serve farmers and workers adequately. The majority of these temporary offices were operated as branches of nearby regular offices. (See appendix, p. 10949 for location and duration of 1941 temporary and Farm Security Administration camp offices, and for additional offices and camps recommended for the 1942

program.) Experienced interviewers were also dispatched to some 15 Farm Security camps during the 1941 season. These men operated employment offices under a written cooperative agreement with the Farm Security officials. No new personnel are sent to the Farm Security camps for placement work, but regular personnel in the local office are used and any new persons are assigned to the local office where they will be under supervision. (See appendix for copy of agreement.) While the charts show 16 interviewers, events of the past few months have made it imperative that this number be increased to at least 30 in order to carry out the "food for victory" program.

In estimating personnel requirements for the 1942 farm-placement program, certain data not now available are necessary. Most assuredly the increases in farm production dictated by the "food for freedom" campaign will proportionately increase the agricultural placement job of the United States Employment Service in Oregon. Before estimating actual numbers of additional interviewers required the following must be known:

1. Anticipated demands for farm workers.
2. Anticipated supplies of farm workers.
3. New camps to be established by the Farm Security Administration.

The calculation and determination of these factors will not be completed for several weeks. Therefore, other than to indicate that additional interviewers will be needed, the Oregon agency cannot accurately estimate personnel needs for the 1942 farm program at the present writing.

3. ANALYZING THE DEMAND FOR AGRICULTURAL LABOR

A. Kinds of data required

(1) *Anticipated acreages.*—Each year it is essential to get adjusted figures covering crop acreages throughout the State. Farming methods, crop prices, Government controls, and many other factors operate to expand, contract, or eliminate the different kinds of crop from year to year.

(2) *Resident farm labor.*—In forecasting both supply and demand, careful discount must be made for persons living on farms. These people fall into two classes: those who, although living on the farm, do not ordinarily work there, and those who both live and work on the farm.

(3) *Man-hour requirements for each crop.*—It is not only essential to know the average man-hours required to produce every kind of commercial crop, but each crop must be reduced to its component parts and man-hour measurements established for each phase of growth, from preparation of the soil to the ultimate harvest. It is only through minute time segregations of labor requirements that adequate plans can be made for recruiting, then disbanding or transferring, groups of workers whose services are not needed continuously. Frequently, for example, the harvesting of a crop in one part of the State is overlapped by some operation on an entirely different crop in another part of the state. In these instances it is often possible to transfer whole blocks of workers from one crop to another. The application of component part man-hour criteria permits timing such moves with a minimum of confusion and wasted, aimless migrations.

(4) *Prior years' production records.*—Where crops are duplicated year after year—that is, where substantially the same products come out of substantially the same areas—the records of operations of previous years are invaluable.

It is also necessary to obtain as much current information as possible from the individual farmer, such as:

1. How many acres did you harvest last year?
2. How many bushels, pounds, tons, etc., per acre last year?
3. How many men did you use to harvest your crop?
4. How long did it take them?
5. What percent of normal was your crop yield?
6. Do you contemplate increased or decreased acreage for the coming year?

B. How will these data be obtained?

The Employment Service is not in a position to gather the statistical data deemed necessary for adequate operation on a statewide basis nor would such an effort be reasonable in view of the several Federal and State agencies whose primary responsibilities are found in gathering and compiling this data.

(1) *Employment Service surveys.*—It is desirable that local office farm placement representatives make personal inquiries of farmers in their areas, and conduct

occasional surveys of agricultural conditions, in order to be well informed on labor needs. Information gathered in this manner becomes part of the offices' regular weekly reports on crop conditions and labor demand and supply. (See appendix for sample Weekly Agricultural Labor Report.)

(2) *Contacts with employer organizations and cooperatives.*—Much of the data on labor needs and other agricultural information is obtained from packing and processing firms, cooperative marketing associations, etc.

(3) *Analysis of prior years' employer orders.*—The Division of Research and Statistics, through analysis of last year's farm labor orders, secures data on area labor demands, man-hours required for harvesting operations, and the resident supply of labor.

(4) *Analysis of data from other governmental agencies.*—

1. Agricultural Marketing Service of the United States Department of Agriculture.

2. Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture.

3. Extension Service, Oregon State College. a. County agricultural agents.

4. Farm Security Administration.

5. National Resources Planning Board.

6. State and county war boards.

7. County land-use planning committees. a. County agricultural labor subcommittees.

8. Wages and Hours Division, United States Department of Labor.

9. Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

10. Oregon State Labor Commissioner.

11. Oregon State Department of Agriculture.

Man-hour crop measurements: Studies and reports furnished or to be furnished, by several of the agencies listed in (4) above provide the Employment Service with data from which the man-hours required in each phase of crop production can be estimated. In addition, these reports furnish the factual basis for establishing time schedules on various crops—approximate starting and stopping dates for each phase of crop production. (See Appendix for sample schedule of unit productivity.)

(5) *Analysis of prior years' weekly crop status reports.*—During the active season in each local office area, reports are sent weekly to the administrative office outlining recent developments. These reports are combined in the administrative office into a State summary indicating active crops, type of work being done, starting and stopping dates, workers now employed, shortage of workers, prevailing wages, and living accommodations available. From the State summaries can be anticipated probable demands for workers during identical periods in the following year. (See Appendix for weekly State summary of crop conditions, labor demands, and shortages.)

4. ANALYZING THE SUPPLY OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR

Since the available supply of agricultural workers is a much more dynamic and variable factor in the labor market than the demand for such workers, it follows that supply cannot be anticipated with the degree of accuracy which we apply to demand. Wages, available facilities, weather, conditions of crops in other areas, and countless other influences tend to upset even the best laid plans for conserving local labor supplies. One general principle must prevail in the analysis of the supply side of the agricultural labor market. Prepare to exhaust the local community supply first. Every possible means should be anticipated for reaching and putting into service those members of the community or township who do not ordinarily consider themselves attached to the labor market. Oregon has used this technique to advantage on numerous occasions. It is only when such reservoirs as this are exhausted that efforts to effect wholesale migrations from other areas and/or States should be made.

Oregon's approach to the supply problem has been the careful analysis of all local sources of agricultural labor. These sources are then cultivated through standard means for bringing economic problems to the community's attention. Priming of this kind is begun well in advance of the dates upon which workers will be needed. When the time for action arrives the amount of recruiting required to bring workers into the fields depends upon the difference between (1) farm resident and regular migratory laborers, and (2) the predetermined number of workers needed to harvest, or cultivate, the crop.

A. Oregon's sources of agricultural labor supply

(1) *Local office registration files.*—In addition to the regular employment registration files from which local offices can make agricultural placements, Oregon's local farm placement representatives build up, during the winter and spring months, a supplemental file of registrations for seasonal agricultural work. A special form, No. 342 (see appendix), designed exclusively for farm placement allows over-the-desk registration of families intending to work in the fields well in advance of the harvest periods. The form provides space for listing equipment held by the family or party. This last information is valuable in placement areas where adequate living facilities are not maintained by growers.

(2) *Local office surveys.*—In the early stages of the annual program, local managers and farm-placement representatives provide the administrative office with estimates of the numbers of resident workers now living on farms. Farm-to-farm canvassing is rarely necessary. County agents, city and county clerks, growers associations to whom crops have been contracted, grange, Farm Bureau, and farmers' unions, and packing houses, all contribute to the pool of information concerning each local office area.

(3) *Census of women.*—In February 1942 the Oregon Board for Mobilization of Women conducted a census of women who are willing to take employment in the event of a State or National emergency. Provision has been made on the census form for each woman canvassed to indicate her availability for full or part-time agricultural work. Locality preference, and crop preference questions are also included in the census form. Files established from the women's survey will be used extensively as a method of exhausting the local labor supply. (See appendix and/or sample census registration form.)

(4) *County welfare commissions.*—Regular procedures have been established through cooperative arrangement with county welfare commissions for the orderly notification that local employment offices have openings in the harvest fields suitable for many relief clients. Administrative study of the forms used in such notifications during previous years determines the approximate number of workers available through welfare commissions in each area.

(5) *Other agency studies of migratory labor.*—From reports published or provided by the College Extension Service, the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, and the Marketing Service Division of the United States Department of Agriculture, the Employment Service can glean a picture of that group of migratory workers that follows the annual sequence of crop harvests. Under normal conditions this group of labors would be classed in the same category as those living on farms the year around. In 1942, however, it will not be a normal year in this respect. There is reason to exclude the migratory worker from our pool of workers that will be on hand at harvest time with little or no recruitment effort. It will be necessary to depend more heavily upon our ability to dip more deeply into the class of field workers whose services cannot be enlisted except in cases of emergency, school children, wives of professional men, industrial workers on Sundays and holidays. (See appendix for chart of crop harvest sequence.)

(6) *Civilian Conservation Corps.*—All company commanders are under orders to permit Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees to volunteer for agricultural harvest work in cases of emergency. Transferring boys from camp to farm, and farm to camp, is arranged by farm representatives in cooperation with company commanders.

(7) *Work Projects Administration Reemployment Division.*—An intensified program of recruiting Work Projects Administration workers who will be available for agricultural work is being carried out by the Division of Training and Reemployment of the Work Projects Administration, in cooperation with the farm placement representative of the United States Employment Service throughout the State. This program will make available an additional supply of labor for the 1942 season.

(8) *Census of school children.*—In March 1942 Oregon's school authorities will conduct a registration of all children from the seventh grade through college who would be available for referral to industry or agriculture. The registration forms will be furnished by the Employment Service, and the completed forms will then be turned over to our local offices for use in recruiting industrial and agricultural workers. (See Appendix for plan of school registration.)

The census of school children has been approved by all the administrative heads of the various school systems in the State of Oregon.

Every effort is being made by the Employment Service to assist local communities in working out transportation problems under present conditions. Since farm

trucks and school busses appear to be the only vehicles that will be eligible for tires, it will be necessary to depend heavily on these types of transportation for agricultural workers.

It is advisable to encourage the registration of school teachers in order to have a definite indication of the availability of persons who would be willing to supervise groups of school children in the harvest program, efforts will be made on the local office level to organize such a program.

(9) *National Youth Administration.*—A joint statement of policy between National Youth Administration and the Employment Service on the State and local level concerning the use of National Youth Administration youths in agricultural work provides an emergency supply of labor.

5. ADMINISTRATIVE CORRELATION OF "DEMAND" AND "SUPPLY" DATA

A. Sources of statistical data used in correlating "demand" and "supply" agricultural labor data

1. Under a negotiated agreement between the United States Employment Service and the Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the United States Department of Labor, the latter Bureau will furnish the United States Employment Service with the following basic statistical data needed to forecast agricultural labor supply and demand factors.

(a) Man-hour labor requirement estimates. These estimates will be submitted showing—

- (1) Man-hour requirements per acre for the State's major crops.
- (2) Man-hour labor requirements by months for the State's major crops.
- (3) Man-hour requirements per head for livestock.
- (4) Man-hour requirements per head per month for livestock.

2. Under a negotiated agreement with the Agricultural Marketing Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, that Service will furnish the United States Employment Service the following data on anticipated agricultural production.

- (a) Acreage.
- (b) Livestock.
- (c) Poultry.
- (d) Reports on anticipated crop maturity dates.
- (e) Reports on anticipated seasonal agricultural cultivating and harvesting activities.

(f) Estimates of the "on-the-farm" labor supply anticipated to be available for 1942.

B. Estimated demands

The farm placement supervisor and the Division of Research and Statistics collaborate on an analysis of data gathered in advance of the active agricultural seasons. Acreages by crop, by county, are the starting points in forecasting the manpower needed during the coming season. From the information pool are taken the experiences of past years, the number of man-days actually expended in cultivating and harvesting. Statistical treatment establishes unit productivity for past years. Weighted according to "percentage" estimates of last year's crops, the unit measurements are expended and applied to acreages for 1942. When State figures are thus obtained, it requires only additional statistical and clerical treatment to reduce man-hour estimates to counties. In this form, our estimates assume an immediate value to the local office farm representative.

For example, we know that in 1941 Umatilla County harvested approximately 26,000 acres of peas. From our local office surveys prior to the season, from our agricultural placement reports, from reports obtained from processing plants, and from data furnished by the various Federal agencies, we find that the number of resident plus migratory workers employed in the harvest was 2,800. We also determine from the above sources that approximately 18 days were consumed in harvesting peas in Umatilla County, and that the average working day during the 18 days was 11 hours. 1941: 20,000 acres, 2,800 workers, 18 days, 11 hour average working day, 27.72 man-hours per acre.

By extending the 1941 man-hours per acre (27.72) to the anticipated 1942 pea acreage we find: 26,000 acres, will require 3,300 workers, for 18 days, at 11 hours per man per day.

Through statistical manipulation it is possible to weight the estimated demand for pea pickers. Unusual crop conditions, weather conditions, kinds of available labor, are among the factors which make adjustment of raw "demand" estimates necessary.

C. Estimated supply

Although supply estimates are subject to even greater variations than demand forecasts, pre-season planning required only determination of two factors, resident farm labor, and regular migratory labor available without recruitment effort. Following the example in A above, from the sources listed in section 3 of this report the administrative office in collaboration with the local office serving Umatilla County, determines that 1,500 resident workers, and 500 regular migratory laborers will be on hand at the beginning of the harvest. After consideration, it is decided to weight the 500 figures, because of increased work opportunities in bordering States. This action cuts the "on hand" figure down to 1,700.

D. Labor market statement

Comparison of the estimated supply with the estimated demand, now reveals a potential shortage of 1,600 workers. With this information the local farm placement representative knows that he must (1) explore additional local sources, (2) arrange for clearance of needed labor from other areas of immediate clearance, or (3) place orders with the State central clearance office.

Identical procedures for analyzing labor markets for other areas and other crops, are followed by the administrative and local offices. Some crops require the use of seasonal labor on different phases of production. Sugar beets, for example, are thinned during one season of the year, and harvested during another. Estimates in these instances are prepared for both the thinning and harvesting operations. By adapting these procedures to individual crops in the various agricultural areas, the farm placement supervisor, with the advice and assistance of the Research Division, can prepare a balance sheet on the agricultural labor market within the State. Reflected thereon would be state-wide Schedules of supply discrepancies by crop, by area, and, administratively more important, by dates. (A balance sheet was not prepared for the 1941 season.)

6. EXECUTION OF THE FARM PLACEMENT PROGRAM

A. Administrative office, State

Through common consent the term "deal" has come to mean the seasonal agricultural problem in a particular area, for a particular crop. From the State-wide point of view necessarily taken by the administrative staff, the entire program resolves itself into a continuous series of "deals." Planning and some preparatory steps are common to each of them, but execution of placement procedures brings out striking differences in preliminary arrangements. Thus, each "deal," strawberries at Gresham, beets at Ontario, pears at Medford, apples at Hood River, and hops at Salem, has to be considered a separate operation by the farm placement supervisor. Blanket instructions cannot be issued for the methods of recruitment. Ordinary methods of recruitment may suffice where a minor shortage occurs, but in a pressure deal more spectacular means would have to be employed.

Coordination of the numerous harvest recruitment operations is the supervisor's responsibility. Assisting him are the staff officers attached to the State central office. It should be emphasized that every preparatory step which can possibly be taken well in advance of the season's opening is effected.

(1) *Division of Research and Statistics.*—Aside from the preseason, long range, planning in which the division participates, it serves a practical purpose in the execution of the placement program. State summaries of weekly local office "crop status and labor supply" reports are prepared and analyzed for the farm supervisor. Placement reports are audited to insure adequate data for next year's planning activities. Frequently weather conditions, pests, disease, or other factor forces an immediate change in the anticipated labor demand. The research division must make rapid fire adjustments in the plans for the particular "deal" affected, for the guidance of the supervisor and the local representative.

(2) *Training division.*—The part played by the Division of Training is, under normal conditions, limited to preseason months. During the actual operating season time out for area training conferences, reading of detailed instruction manuals and local office staff meetings, is out of the question. All training of

office personnel must be accomplished before the placement action begins. Training's primary responsibility lies in arresting the natural tendency toward completely decentralized and individual treatment of local area problems. Uniform planning and execution methods can, and should, be applied to each crop—to a certain point. Stating the problem in another way, each local representative should use the same methods in planning the requirements, and in selecting the recruitment methods to be applied to his area.

(3) *State central clearance office.*—The clearance office is, of course, directly responsible for up-to-date periodic statements of the condition of agricultural labor markets in other States, and, more important, intra-area markets within the State. Knowledge of markets is essential in anticipating and executing clearance orders. On many occasions a day's delay in the handling of an order bringing worker into Oregon, or transferring them from one area to another within the State, would cost workers and growers thousands of dollars in wages and profits. For this reason local offices are encouraged to place orders to clearance in advance of the dates on which workers are needed.

Emergencies sometimes require departures from standard clearance procedures. On occasion workers are guaranteed transportation to and from other areas in an effort to speed up migration. Employment offices have organized whole caravans in response to a telegram from an office in another clearance area. This short cut saved part of a crop.

B. Local office procedures

The incidence of the entire farm placement program is at the local office level. Its success, in the last analysis, depends upon the technique with which carefully laid plans are carried out. The experience, intuition, sagacity, initiative, and determination of the local farm representative spells the success of his program. Local managers who have lived in the community for years instinctively know the answers to the supply and demand questions. Administrative officers should place great faith in estimates furnished by this type of local representative. He is seldom wrong.

The community phase of each "deal" also begins well ahead of the actual operating period.

(1) *Publicity.*—It is highly unsatisfactory to spring an emergency upon a community. Local managers have discovered that much better response follows a gradually increasing publicity drive. Speeches to Grange groups, civic clubs, and growers' organizations; newspaper stories; personal calls on large employers, all these tactics force the community to think about its potential labor needs. Conscientiousness of the problem brings about closer cooperation with the Employment Service, which in turn results in more accurate forecasts, and less confusing referral and placement procedures.

(2) *Registration for seasonal work.*—The local representative who waits until a day or so before the season opening to register workers for agricultural work, finds himself in an impossible situation. The competent manager keeps his weather eye cocked for potential field labor all during the inactive season. He builds up a file of seasonal work registrations (form 342, see appendix) by questioning anyone who comes into his office. Migratory families are encouraged to remain in the community until the harvest rolls around. In 1942 local offices will have an additional source of registration—the "census of women" files. A manager's objective in building such a reservoir of available workers is, of course, to reduce the necessity for using the more expensive and spectacular recruiting methods of an emergency period.

(3) *Employer orders.*—Another method of lessening the impact of a harvest period is the accumulation of advance orders for workers. Definite schedules can be prepared and matched with the Employment Service's anticipated demand figures. Many difficult situations are ironed out in advance through the handling of advance orders. Growers whose entire futures are tied up in the harvesting of a single crop are prone to estimate their labor needs far too high. When advance orders are received, the farm representative is able to analyze them by checking against man-hour labor requirements and detect the out-of-line ones. Tactful explanations will then often reduce the size of labor requests, and thus prevent anticipation of a greater shortage than actually exists.

An "order" form (No. 335, see appendix) designed especially for agricultural labor, orders is in general use throughout the State. Directions for reaching the farm, living accommodations furnished, and items the worker is required to furnish, are examples of the special information provided on Form 335.

(4) *Housing for workers.*—The Farm Security Administration, with the advice of the agricultural committee of the State advisory council, are cooperating in the locating and establishing of farm labor camps. Cooperation does not stop with the selection of camp sites. An "administration" tent is allotted the Employment Service by Farm Security Administration from which work registrations are taken, and job referrals made. Standard referral cards (Form 320) given migratory field workers are accepted by Farm Security Administration at their camps, and tents are allocated without further qualification. A distinct advantage in maintaining a temporary local office at these camps is found in the accuracy with which the employment officer can determine the number of workers available at any hour of the day or night. (See Appendix for 1941 and 1942 Schedule of Farm Security Administration Camps in Oregon.)

(5) *Temporary branch offices.*—Two other kinds of temporary offices are used to advantage. In some areas, growers' associations furnish quarters and office space for employment officers. During the heat of the harvest period registrations and referrals can be made more quickly from this kind of branch office.

On other occasions and in other areas, it has been determined to be administratively sound to set up temporary offices for the duration of the active season. Accessibility to the harvest fields is a prime consideration in locating such temporary placement offices. (See Appendix for Schedule of Temporary Offices 1941 and Recommended Offices for 1942.)

(6) *Referrals.*—In some instances the referral of agricultural workers is accomplished by the standard card (Form 320). In more general use, however, is a referral form in triplicate (Form 340, see appendix) that is better adapted to the agricultural type of referral. The standard card becomes difficult to use when directing entire families to a particular harvest field.

Referrals in rural communities are further complicated by the obvious difficulty found in giving the workers directions for reaching the farm. In many areas the local manager has prepared a "master" road map showing the location of each grower to whom referrals are likely to be made. Sections of the large map are then duplicated for distribution to workers being directed to different farms. For example, the employment officer can, on one of the reproductions, draw a colored line from the employment office to the place of work, give it to the worker and tell him to follow the red line to the spot marked "X."

(7) *Emergency recruiting methods.*—The following recruitment devices have been used successfully by our local managers. Many of them are reserved for emergencies where the answer to the recruitment problem lies in arousing public opinion to the point that ordinarily unused sources of labor supply have to be tapped. Generally, it is the responsibility of the local farm representative to select those methods he believes will secure sufficient workmen with the least attendant confusion and waste motion. It should be emphasized that local office managers work closely with all organized groups—growers' associations, producers, processors, etc., in determining which of the emergency recruiting devices should be used.

Emergency recruiting devices:

- (a) Census of women files.
- (b) Census of schools files.
- (c) Central labor clearance procedures.
- (d) Newspaper advertising.
- (e) Radio advertising.
- (f) Posters for store windows.
- (g) Street signs.
- (h) Telephone calls.
- (i) Sound cars.
- (j) Canvasses of workers in fields for friends who might be reached by postcard.
- (k) Speeches and appeals by public officials.
- (l) Organization of employer advertising groups—Distribution of assessment on basis of acreage.
- (m) Requesting school closings for duration.
- (n) Keeping the local office open 7 days per week.
- (8) *Statistical reporting.*—(a) Registrations: Use of the "registration for seasonal work" (Form 342, see appendix) is vital to accurate planning of labor market conditions for the following year. Since complete seldom taken when families are available only for agricultural work, this is the only source of migratory labor information retained by the local office. The workers are once directed to the fields.

(b) Referrals: The number of persons referred to agricultural work is at present the only complete measurement of the volume of agricultural workers handled by the Employment Service. Since only verified placements are now to be reported, the administrative office duplicates of referral forms, No. 340, are the only means available for checking operations against forecasted supply and demand figures, and for use in arriving at the following year's unit productivity measurement.

(c) Placements: Verified agricultural placements, in addition to being included in the regular daily placement report for the Bureau in Washington, D. C., are classified on a supplemental report according to (see appendix for sample report):

- (1) Industry codes—type of farm.
- (2) Sex.
- (3) Age; veteran status.
- (4) Residence status—local, intrastate, or interstate.
- (5) Clearance status, as applicant, or order holding office.
- (6) Unverified referrals.

(d) Irregular reports and surveys: Reports other than those of standard items are requested from time to time in accordance with the needs of the State administrative office in its planning activities.

7. CONCLUSION

It is important to remember that only the six main points in this plan—scope, administration, demand, supply, analysis, and execution—are stable. Every other point in the entire outline is subject to the whims of price, weather, supply and demand in other fields, and countless other variables. It is only through constant adjustment to current economic conditions that its success may become apparent.

APPENDIX. 1942 AGRICULTURAL LABOR PROGRAM

FEBRUARY 5, 1942.

From: L. C. Stoll, Director, Federal Employment Service for Oregon, and William L. Teutsch, Assistant Director, Federal Cooperative Extension Service.
To: Employment Service field representatives and county agricultural agents.

Subject: Procedure for establishing farm labor subcommittees in all agricultural counties with major farm labor problems.

A supply of farm labor adequate to the production and harvesting of 1942 crops is recognized as a major problem in fulfillment of the food for victory program in this State. In order that there may be the best local judgment available on this problem and that the question of labor supply be handled in such manner as to be consistent with the food for victory goals in the various counties of the State, it is proposed that a farm labor subcommittee be added to the agricultural planning committees in each county.

The Federal Employment Service for Oregon and the extension service, Oregon State College, are in full accord that such a set-up is desirable and will aid in obtaining and distributing farm labor in a manner consistent with major agricultural needs. From the overall standpoint, creation of a farm labor subcommittee with membership constituted as proposed will tie in the farm labor problems and coordinate the activity of the Federal Employment Service, the county war board, the land-use planning committee, the agricultural planning committee. In addition, it will give representation on the committee of the major commodities with large farm labor requirements. Decision on this matter was reached only after thorough consideration and study.

COMMITTEE FUNCTIONS AND PROCEDURE

1. In every county an Employment Service representative and the county agent should confer and agree on the nomination of not more than three producers or processors of important agricultural crops to serve on the committee. These three persons plus the chairman of the county United States Department of Agriculture war board and the chairman or another member of the county agricultural planning committee, or one of its subcommittees, will constitute the committee which will be appointed by the chairman of the agricultural planning committee. The farm labor committee will be the fifth subcommittee, the others being land use, farm, home, and rural life, livestock, and crops.

2. The county agent and the local representative of the Employment Service will be ex-officio members of the committee.

3. Functions of the subcommittee:

(a) The committee should meet once a month and oftener if necessary, for the purpose of considering farm labor problems and advising with the local Employment Service representative as to labor supply needed based upon area, volume, and condition of crops.

(b) The committee will select from its membership a chairman and a secretary, the latter to keep a record of the problems discussed and the decisions or recommendations made. For example, the committee may recommend that a mass meeting of producers be held for consideration of a recommended program. A copy of the record of each meeting will be transmitted to the director of the Employment Service by the Employment Service representative on the committee and to the secretary of the State land-use planning committee by the county agricultural agent.

(c) The committee will assist in developing programs for recruiting and distributing local labor.

(d) The committee will refer to the State director of the Employment Service or his representative and to the secretary of the State land-use planning committee recommendations or problems which involve State or Federal policies for their respective consideration and action.

We further recommend that the two above-addressed individuals in each county involved meet soon to develop definite steps to carry out this plan.

To: Employment Service and Farm Security Administration personnel.

Subject: Joint statement of basis of cooperation between State employment service and farm security administration concerning migratory labor camps.

1. ESTABLISHMENT OF CAMPS

The Farm Security Administration will request recommendations of the Employment Service in matters regarding selection of mobile migratory labor camps as follows:

(a) Need for establishment of a camp in any locality of the State.

(b) Size of camp to be established.

(c) Opening and closing dates of camp.

(d) Priority of camp location selection.

2. It will be the policy of the Employment Service to establish a placement office in each of the migratory labor camps.

3. The Farm Security Administration will furnish necessary quarters for offices of the Employment Service office. The Farm Security Administration will endeavor to provide suitable living quarters for employment office personnel provided, however, such quarters will be paid for at the prevailing rate charged camp staff personnel.

4. The Employment Service office in the migratory camp will make its facilities available at all times to workers housed in the migratory labor camps.

5. The Employment Service representative in the camp will be responsible for receiving all orders for workers and will be responsible for selection and referral of all workers from the camp.

6. While the Employment Service representative is in no way responsible for camp management, he will cooperate in all matters where his cooperation is solicited by the camp manager.

7. While the camp manager is in no way responsible for the work of the Employment Service representative, he will cooperate with the Employment Service representative in any matter in which his cooperation is solicited by the Employment Service representative.

8. It will be the policy of both agencies to hold a joint meeting in each State for the purpose of establishing joint operating procedures, and the presentation of this joint statement. These meetings will be conducted jointly, by the Farm Placement supervisor of the Employment Service and the Chief of the Migratory Labor Camp Section of the Farm Security Administration or their duly authorized representatives.

Requested seasonal agricultural branch offices of U. S. Employment Service in Oregon, 1942

Permanent local office and county	Temporary local offices	Duration of temporary offices
District No. 1:		
The Dalles:		
Sherman.....	Moro.....	Apr. to Aug. 1.
Gilliam.....	Condon.....	Do.
Wasco.....	Mosier.....	May 1 to July 1.
		Aug. 1 to Sept. 1.
Pendleton:		
Umatilla.....	Milton-Freewater.....	May 1 to July 15.
Do.....	Athens.....	Do.
		June 1 to July 15.
La Grande: Wallowa.....	Enterprise.....	May 1 to July 15.
Baker: Grant.....	John Day.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.
Ontario:		
Malheur.....	Nyssa.....	May 1 to Nov. 1.
Do.....	Vale.....	May 15 to Oct. 1.
Harney.....	Burns.....	May 1 to July 15.
Bend:		
Deschutes.....	Redmond.....	June 1 to Nov. 15.
Crook.....	Prineville.....	Aug. 1 to Sept. 15.
Jefferson.....	Madras.....	June 1 to July 15.
Klamath Falls: Lake.....	Lakeview.....	Do.
District No. 2:		
Salem:		
Marion.....	West Strayton.....	June 1 to Oct. 1.
Do.....	Woodburn.....	May 1 to Oct. 1.
Polk.....	Dallas.....	Do.
Marion.....	Silverton.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.
Polk.....	Independence.....	July 1 to Sept. 1.
Marshfield: Coos.....	Coquille.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.
Medford: Josephine.....	Grants Pass.....	May 1 to Oct. 1.
District No. 3:		
Portland:		
Multnomah.....	Gresham.....	May 1 to July 15.
Do.....	Orient.....	May 1 to July 1.
Columbia.....	Scappoose.....	Apr. 1 to Sept. 1.
Do.....	Rainier.....	Apr. 1 to July 1.
Washington.....	Hillsboro.....	Apr. 1 to Aug. 1.
Do.....	Gales Creek.....	May 1 to June 15.
Hood River: Hood River.....	Odell.....	May 1 to July 1.
Astoria: Clatsop.....	Seaside.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.
Oregon City: Clackamas.....	Boring, Sandy.....	May 1 to July 1.
McMinnville: Yamhill.....	Newberg.....	May 1 to Sept. 15.
Tillamook: Tillamook.....	Wheeler.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.

1942 farm security migratory labor camps in Oregon

County and location	Dates	County and location	Dates
Malheur:		Marion:	
Nyssa.....	Apr. 5 to Nov. 15.	Marion ¹	July 10 to Sept. 1.
Ontario ¹	May 5 to Aug. 15.	Turner ¹	July 20 to Sept. 5.
Vale.....	Aug. 15 to Sept. 1.	Lane: Coburg.....	July 25 to Sept. ¹
Washington:		Josephine: Grants Pass.....	July 10 to Sept. 1.
North Plains.....	Apr. 15 to July 1.	Polk: Independence.....	Aug. 20 to Sept. 25.
Gales Creek ¹	May 5 to July 15.	Hood River: Odell.....	Aug. 25 to Nov. 15.
Multnomah: Gresham.....	May 1 to Aug. 1.	Klamath:	
Linn: Brewster.....	May 4 to July 1.	Merrill.....	Sept. 10 to Nov. 15.
Umatilla: Athena.....	May 15 to Aug. 15.	Malin.....	Sept. 15 to Nov. 15.
Wasco: The Dalles ¹	May 15 to July 10.	Deschutes: Redmond ¹	Sept. 15 to Nov. 15.

¹ New locations this year (1942).

² Tentative.

No provision has thus far been made for camps at Pleasant Home in Multnomah County and Medford in Jackson County. There were camps at both of these locations last year (1941). The loss of a migratory labor camp at Pleasant Home will not handicap that area too seriously. However, every effort should be made to establish one at Medford as the construction of the cantonment there will complicate the farm labor problem for this coming season.

OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
REFERRAL—SEASONAL AGRICULTURAL WORKERS

Office at

To
(Name) (Address)

In response to your order we refer as applicant for

Name	Address
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	
.....	

Date

.....
(Employment Officer)

OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE
REGISTRATION FOR SEASONAL AGRICULTURAL WORK

At

Number Available when Type of work

(Head of Party)

(Located at)

(Phone)

Remarks

(Home Address)

Name	Address	Experienced
		Equipment
		Trailer house
		Car
		Tent
		Bedding
		Stove
		Cooking utensils
		Tools

Assigned to Employment Officer Date

No. _____
Date _____

OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

EMPLOYER ORDER—SEASONAL OR EMERGENCY WORK

Employer _____ Telephone _____
 Address _____
 How reached _____
 Type of workers _____ Number of workers _____
 Family or other groups _____ Single _____
 Wages _____ When wanted _____
 Experience required _____
 Kind of work _____
 Duration of work _____ order taken by _____
 Employer will provide— Worker should have—
 Tents _____ Board _____ Tent _____
 Cabins _____ Room _____ Bedding _____
 Stoves _____ Campsite _____ Cooking utensils _____
 Mattresses _____ Firewood _____ Tools _____
 Transportation _____ Water _____ Transportation _____
 Disposition of order and remarks _____

OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

AGRICULTURAL LABOR REPORT

Office _____ County _____ Week ending _____

Crops currently active ¹

Crop					
Activity					
Number employed					
Number unemployed					
Present shortage					
Number required at peak					
Date of duration of peak					
Rate of pay	Hourly				
	Piece work				
Facilities available					
Unfilled orders (number of workers)					

¹ Consider as currently active any crop now active or expected to be active within 15 days of the date of report.

NOTE.—State sources of information for number unemployed.

Remarks:

Form 301-A
 Week_____ Split week_____ Month_____
 From_____ To_____
 Office at_____ Code_____
 Compiled by_____
 Approved by_____

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

Research and Statistics Division

WEEKLY REPORT OF AGRICULTURAL
PLACEMENTS

	Type of farm						
	00 General	01 Dairy	02 Grain	04 Fruit	05 Live- stock	06 Truck	77 Other
1. Male:							
Adult.....							
Under 12.....							
2. Female:							
Adult.....							
Under 12.....							
3. Veteran.....							
4. Local residents.....							
5. Other intrastate-residents.....							
6. Out-of-State residents.....							
Included in the above are:							
7. Clearance placements as order-holding office.....							
8. Clearance placements as applicant- holding office.....							
9. In addition, the following referrals were made which were not verified.....							

[Sample]

[Confidential—For use of Oregon State Employment Service only]

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE,
 OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE,
Salem, Oreg.

AGRICULTURAL LABOR REPORT

July 28, 1941

The cane berry harvest is practically completed in the Willamette Valley except for the blackberries in Multnomah and Clackamas Counties. Approximately 2,000 pickers are still engaged in this harvest which will be completed in about 2 weeks. Several thousand cane berry pickers in the Gresham area were released and many of them are now employed in the grain harvest in progress throughout the Willamette Valley.

The green bean harvest has begun with an estimated 5,000 pickers now working. Probably 15,000 additional workers will be needed to complete the harvest. Production has been increased to approximately 40 percent over 1940. There is at present no shortage of workers, but an acute shortage is anticipated at the peak of activity.

Pear picking will begin in Jackson County about August 1 when 1,200 pickers will be needed with a shortage anticipated at the peak. Local people are being schooled in pear packing as a shortage of skilled fruit packers is anticipated. A shortage of pear pickers in Hood River seems possible about August 20, as a survey indicates less than 50 percent of the 2,000 needed will be available. Local workers appear to be sufficient for packing operations. The peak of activity will be reached about August 20.

In eastern Oregon the Athena pea and Umatilla tomato harvests are completed. Prune picking and packing is starting in the Milton-Freewater area. At the peak 1,800 workers will be needed. The grain harvest is in progress throughout the Columbia Basin. Some potatoes are being dug in Malheur County, but the low price does not justify extended operations. Lettuce thinning will begin there early in August.

Flax harvest is at its peak in Clackamas, Marion, and Lane Counties.

In Coos county, about 150 pickers are employed in wild blackberry harvest.

Bent grass seed harvest will start in Clatsop county about August 1, 1941.

Harvest of Freestone peaches has begun in Wasco, Yamhill, Marion, and Jackson Counties.

In Tillamook, a shortage of about 20 dairy hands exists.

County	Crop	Activity	Expected production in percent of 1940	Expected starting date, 1941	Duration of peak	Number needed at peak	Number		Present shortage	Rate of pay		Unfilled orders	Facilities available
							Working	Unemployed		Hour	Piece		
Multnomah	Green beans	Harvest	100	Aug. 1	Aug. 10 to Sept. 1	1,300	40	2,400		1 cent+ $\frac{1}{4}$ cent.	Box	30	Farm Security Administration.
	Peaches	do.	95		July 20 to Aug. 1		1,000						
	Blackberries	do.			Aug. 1 to 30	250	200	None	35	1 cent+ $\frac{1}{4}$ cent.	do		Camp sites.
	Peaches	do.	65	July 20									
Clackamas	Green beans	do.	140										
	Blackberries	do.											
	Hops	Preharvest	60	Aug. 25	Sept. 1 to 20	250							
	Green beans	Harvest	300	Aug. 1	Aug. 1 to 23	2,500	100	None	None	1 cent+ $\frac{1}{4}$ cent.	do	1,000	Cabins. Security Farm Administration camp.
Yamhill	Prunes	Preharvest	550										
	Peaches	Harvest	100	Aug. 12									
	Hops	Preharvest	100	July 10	July 30 to Aug. 30	6,000	2,500		None	1 cent+ $\frac{1}{4}$ cent.	do		Farm Security Administration and camps.
	Green beans	Harvest	125										
Marion	Peaches	do.	55										
	Hops	Preharvest	85										

NOTE.—This represents a cross section of the regular agricultural labor report. In practice it is, of course, extended to include agricultural activities in all counties of the State of Oregon.

Comparative statement of labor demands of canneries in Oregon, 1939, 1940, 1941

There were 38 canneries in the State of Oregon during the peak season of 1941 that employed a total of 19,829 persons; 7,974 were male and 11,855 were female. Comparing the season of 1941 with 1940 and 1939 we find the following:

Year	Total employees during peak season	Percent increase over previous year	Total male employees	Percent increase over previous year	Total female employees	Percent increase over previous year
1939.....	16,373	-----	6,139	-----	10,234	4
1940.....	17,004	4	6,372	4	10,632	4
1941.....	19,829	16½	7,974	25	11,855	11½

Year	Total man-hours	Percent increase over previous year	Male man-hours	Percent increase over previous year	Female man-hours	Percent increase over previous year
1939.....	5,992,000	-----	2,815,582	-----	3,176,418	-----
1940.....	6,781,299	13	3,408,023	21	3,373,276	6
1941.....	9,085,132	34	4,770,900	40	4,314,232	28

Year	Total amount of pay roll	Percent increase over previous year	Amount of pay roll, male	Percent increase over previous year	Amount of pay roll, female	Percent increase over previous year
1939.....	\$2,507,836.54	-----	\$1,330,716.54	-----	\$1,177,120.00	-----
1940.....	2,921,083.09	16½	1,654,059.77	24	1,267,023.32	7½
1941.....	4,645,461.91	59	2,718,622.40	64	1,926,839.51	52

Based on these figures and knowing that various canners are increasing the capacity of their plants, we are sure that it will require a great number of additional employees to take care of and conserve the crops.

AGRICULTURAL COMMITTEE STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL

OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE AFFILIATED WITH SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD

Salem, Oreg.

MEMBERSHIP

The agricultural committee of the State advisory council is composed of 18 members, representative of the various types of agricultural enterprises in the State of Oregon. This membership consists of men of wide experience as farm producers and processors. The committee meets regularly not less than twice a year and is subject to call for special meetings by the Governor, the Director of the United States Employment Service, and the chairman of the committee.

PURPOSE

1. To advise as to the labor needs in the various types of agriculture in the respective localities in which they occur.
2. To advise in the development of standards for the operation of the Farm Placement Division in the United States Employment Service.
3. To cooperate with and consider action taken by the farm-labor subcommittee of the county land-use planning committee.
4. To promote public understanding of the functions, policies, and practices of the United States Employment Service.

[Sample Agenda]

STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL TO UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE IN OREGON

AGRICULTURAL COMMITTEE AGENDA

CAPITOL BUILDING,
Salem, Oreg., March 5, 1942.

1. Agricultural reports:

Reports to be furnished the Employment Service by United States Department of Agriculture

- (a) Cooperative estimates of labor requirements on certain farm enterprises in Oregon—James C. Moore, State representative, Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture.
 - (b) Crop reporting estimates of (1) acreage and (2) productivity—Niels I. Nielsen, senior statistician, Agricultural Marketing Service, United States Department of Agriculture.
- 2. United States labor legislation—Wesley O. Ash, regional director (and staff), Wages and Hours Division, United States Department of Labor.
 - 3. Local farm labor subcommittees—Emory R. Worth, farm placement supervisor, United States Employment Service in Oregon.
 - 4. Recruitment of labor:
 - (a) Census of women.
 - (b) School registrations.
 - (1) Students.
 - (2) Teachers.
 - (c) Welfare Commission.
 - 5. Transportation:
 - (a) Busses.
 - (b) Trains.
 - 6. Temporary agricultural offices of United States Employment Service in Oregon.
 - 7. 1942 sites of farm security migration labor camps in Oregon.

[Sample]

UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FOR THE STATE OF OREGON

Steps in conducting a State-wide Census of Women, March 1942:

1. The survey was approved by the Oregon State advisory council in the fall of 1941. The advisory council consists of Gov. Charles A. Sprague, Commissioner William A. Bowes, and others, together with a number of representative men throughout the State of Oregon.

2. On the recommendation of the State advisory council chairman, Mr. William A. Bowes, the Governor appointed Mrs. Saidie Orr Dunbar as State director of the women's survey.

3. Mrs. Dunbar as State director, appointed 18 representative women, throughout the State of Oregon, to act as a sponsoring committee for the survey.

4. Under the direction of the State sponsoring committee and in conjunction with the state headquarters, county chairmen were appointed, by Mrs. Dunbar, for each of the 36 counties. These county chairmen worked in close cooperation with the various managers of the United States Employment Service offices, in their respective districts. In the counties, where no employment office was located, the details for the survey were handled by the employment office which had jurisdiction over the county.

5. Each county organization is composed of the following:

- (a) County chairmen.
- (b) Working in collaboration with the chairmen are the managers of the local employment offices, a girl in each employment office who acts as secretary to the county committee, and the county chairmen's subcommittee, which consists of her town committee or precinct leaders. Under these subchairmen, are the field workers. Between eight or ten thousand field workers made the actual house-to-house survey. Identification cards were issued to all principal workers. The inventory form, which is attached, is designed to fold into a 5- by 8-inch file card, and will become a permanent record in the United States Employment Service, and will be tabulated by the local office at the completion of the survey.

6. Inventory cards were supplied to each county chairman, directly from the State printer's office. The 1940 census for Oregon shows 562,689 women recorded in Oregon count. Our order for inventory cards was increased from 300,000 to 450,000. All county organizations are now complete. Forms have been distributed and stamped with return address for each employment office in the State, so that when cards are returned by mail, to each employment office, they will be concentrated and forwarded to the tabulation section.

7. Upon receipt of the inventory cards, by each employment office, they will be stamped with the office number, also, stamped with the serial number assigned to that county by the tabulation section. This serial number will serve as an identification in the tabulating process.

8. Tabulation will be made on questions 8, 9, and 12, also, the name and address, county, employment office, and serial number.

Name [print] -----
(Last) (Initial) (First)

Address -----
(Street) (City) (County) (Phone)

Age group	Marital Status	Citizen	Education	Circle last year completed
18-25 []	Married []	Yes []	Grade school 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	
26-45 []	Single []	No []	High school 1 2 3 4	
46-Over []			College 1 2 3 4 5 6	

Number of children []

Do not write in this space	E. O. No.	Serial number
	CLASSIFICATIONS Professional..... [] Clerical..... [] Domestic and service..... [] Agriculture..... [] Lumber..... [] Skilled..... [] Semiskilled..... [] Unskilled..... [] Miscellaneous..... []	

OREGON BOARD FOR MOBILIZATION OF WOMEN

STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL

IMPORTANT Complete this form to the best of your ability. This is a **VOLUNTARY** registration. All information given will be treated **CONFIDENTIALLY**. The purpose of this inventory is to provide a register of women available for **TEMPORARY** employment, if and when women are needed to replace men in industry or defense work.

This is not a registration for volunteer service. You will be called only in case of actual need or when your particular services are considered necessary. If called you will be interviewed by your local employment office. If employed you will be paid at prevailing wage rates.

1. Present occupation ----- Employer -----
2. If not now employed, have you ever worked? ---- At what? -----
3. Have you had experience or training that requires hand or eye skill? ---- If so, list -----
4. Have you held a managerial or professional position? ---- If so, specify -----
5. Have you had experience or training in clerical occupations, in office work, etc.? ---- If so, specify -----
6. Have you ever worked in any occupation customarily employing men? ---- If so, specify -----
7. Have you ever operated any power-driven machinery, such as power sewing machines, sorters, mixers, elevators, automobiles, tractors, etc.? ---- If so, specify -----
8. Check in column 1 below any industries in which you have had employment.

9. Check in column 2 below any industries in which you will accept training.

Column 1 Employment	Column 2 Training	Column 1 Employment	Column 2 Training
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Have you had any employment or training in any part of the lumbering industry? ---- If so, specify -----

Check below any of the following in which you will accept employment:

☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐

11. Check below any of the following domestic occupations in which you will accept part-time ☐ or full-time ☐ employment:

☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐

12. Check below any of the following agricultural occupations in which you will accept part-time ☐ or full-time ☐ employment:

Harvesting		Canneries
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐
☐	☐	☐

Would you assist in the recruitment of agricultural labor during a harvest emergency? ☐

THIS IS NOT AN APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

State of Oregon

Unemployment Compensation Commission

13. Give here any information not included on this sheet which would indicate your skill and availability for employment or training for any job now held by either a man or a woman, or any service you could perform which would be of value to your State or Nation during the war period.

14. Will you notify your local employment office of any change in your address?

☐ Board representative ----- Information furnished by -----
Area: -----

(Please fold here, attach sticker or clip and mail. No postage is required)

STATE UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION COMMISSION
STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL
SALEM, OREGON

EMPLOYMENT SECURITY MAIL
UNITED STATES POSTAGE
ACCOUNTED FOR UNDER
ACT OF CONGRESS

(PAR. 13, SEC. 579, P. L. & R.)

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

Name of School or College.....
 School Dist. No. County.....

PATRIOTIC AND EMERGENCY REGISTRATION TO AID NATIONAL DEFENSE WORK

Please Print or Type

Name..... Age.....
 (Last) (First) (Middle)

Home address Tel. No. Sex () Male
 () Female

EDUCATIONAL RECORD

Circle Highest Grade Completed	Grade 7 8	High 1 2 3 4	College 1 2 3 4	Other Schooling	No. of months
--------------------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------	-----------------	---------------

Special Courses—Length of each (shop, chemistry, drawing, typing, etc.).....
 Typing rate..... Shorthand rate.....

Have you had 4-H Club work in gardening?.....

Have you had vocational education under Smith-Hughes act?.....

Other skills or experiences.....

Will you be available so you may be called for National Defense Work? Yes.....

No.....

Will you be available so you may be called for Seasonal Defense Agricultural Work? Yes..... No.....

Signature..... Date.....

Consent of parents or guardian.....

OREGON PLAN FOR WORK REGISTRATION OF SCHOOL YOUTHS

1. What is the registration?

On March 3, 1942, a self-registration of approximately 112,000 school youths from the seventh grade through college, was taken by school authorities. This registration will be used by the United States Employment Service in Oregon in the recruitment of both agricultural and industrial labor during national defense emergencies occurring while school youths are normally on vacation.

2. Procedures for taking registration:

(a) The United States Employment Service contacted both the State superintendent of schools and the chancellor of the board of higher education, asking their cooperation in taking the census.

(b) The United States Employment Service contacted the presidents of all private and parochial schools, asking their cooperation in taking the census.

(c) In contacting the agencies described in (a) and (b) above, information was requested as to the number of students in each school that would be reached by the census. When the registration forms (see sample attached) were printed, they were sent to managers of United States Employment Service local offices with instructions for further distribution and subsequent collection. Managers distributed the forms to county school superintendents, presidents of State secondary schools, and presidents of private and parochial schools. Instructions to guide teachers, professors, etc. in the preparation of the registration cards were conveyed by local office managers.

(d) After the census was taken on March 3, 1942, the completed registration cards were called for by the local office managers in the same way that they were originally distributed.

3. Filing the census cards in local employment offices:

Since the probable major use of the census of school youths will be in Oregon's agricultural "Food for Victory" program, it has been decided to file the cards in local offices according to "school." It may be desirable to sort the cards alphabetically by student's name within each batch of cards for each school. The reason for this arrangement is that the schools nearest the particular agricultural harvest or cultivating activity would be called upon first, then the next closest school, and so on until the entire file is exhausted.

In the cards received from college and high-school students there will undoubtedly be special skills which could be used in both industrial and agricultural occupations. These cards should be sorted out and maintained in a separate file according to standard occupational break-downs.

STATE ADVISORY COUNCIL, OREGON UNEMPLOYMENT COMPENSATION COMMISSION
OREGON STATE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, AFFILIATED WITH SOCIAL SECURITY BOARD

PORTLAND, OREG., February 24, 1942.

Mr. L. C. STOLL,
*Director for Oregon United States Employment Service,
Portland, Oreg.*

DEAR MR. STOLL: The following is a brief outline of the organizational plan involved in setting up the State system for taking a house-to-house inventory of women in Oregon and procedure for setting up registration cards for women's census, points 1 to 5.

1. *Selection of Mrs. Saidie Orr Dunbar, State director.*—The appointment was made by Gov. Charles A. Sprague upon recommendation of Mr. William A. Bowes, chairman of the State advisory council, which functioned in connection with the Oregon State Employment Service and the State unemployment compensation commission. Since the federalization of the Employment Service this council now functions only in connection with the State unemployment compensation commission. Mrs. Dunbar was chosen because of her State and national leadership among women.

2. *Appointment of the State sponsoring committee by Mrs. Dunbar.*—This committee was comprised of 24 women, each representing a section of the State or some important State organization of a civic nature.

3. *Appointment of a county chairman in each county by the State director.*—This entailed the selection of 36 women, one for each county in the State, each chosen for her leadership and organizational ability in her respective county.

4. Creation of 36 county committees composed of the county chairman; the office manager of the local United States Employment Office, acting in an advisory capacity, and a recording secretary furnished by the local employment office; under each county organization was set up a subcommittee consisting of sub-chairmen or precinct captains for every precinct in the county. These selections were made by the county chairman in each county.

5. Distribution of inventory forms to each local employment office where the cards were stamped with the return address of that particular office; for example, all cards delivered to Jackson County for use in that county were stamped with the return address of the United States Employment Service in Medford, Oreg. The cards were then divided and packaged by the local employment office with the aid of volunteer workers for distribution according to instructions from the county chairman.

6. Cards were distributed under the supervision of the county chairman with the aid of volunteers, so that each voting precinct was supplied with a sufficient number of forms as estimated by the workers in that particular precinct.

7. Between 6,000 and 7,000 volunteer workers who were assigned to specific areas were supplied with work kits and inventory forms, as well as identification cards signed by the Governor and the State director and commenced the State-wide registration Monday, February 16, 1942.

8. The completed inventory cards were first returned to each local subchairman who checked each worker to see that all cards had been returned properly completed and to be sure that no woman in her precinct, or area, was overlooked.

The local chairman in each community then checked with the county chairman when her area or town was completed.

9. Each county chairman then turned over to the office of the United States Employment Service in her area the completed cards for that county with a report of those persons whom the field workers were unable to reach or who had refused to fill out the form.

10. The cards are now being stamped with the number of the Employment Office to which they belong and from which they were released; for example, all cards released from the Portland office are now being stamped "E. O. #10" After the return of the cards, each will be serially numbered in the space provided in the upper right-hand corner for identification purposes. Upon the completion of the sorting and numbering, all cards will be forwarded to the Central Office for machine and hand tabulation.

11. Completed cards which for some reason did not come in during the survey will reach their proper Employment Office if mailed, since they are already stamped with the return address of the office from which they were released.

12. Upon completion of machine and hand tabulation, all data will be correlated in manual form for the use of the Administrative Office, Central Clearance Office, and each local Employment Office of the United States Employment Service and can be broken down to individual, precinct, city, county, or state levels. The cards will then be returned to the proper local Employment Office, where they will become permanent records. Plans have been completed for machine tabulation of the most important parts of the inventory form. Hand tabulation of other items is being done by volunteer help from the Civilian Defense Volunteer Office.

A central office was temporarily established at 401 Woodlark Building, Portland, Oreg., with a staff consisting of the following: State director, assistant director, informational representative, five stenographers.

Space was also provided for the Multnomah County chairman. All correspondence, news releases, and radio publicity were handled through this office, as well as the work in connection with setting up the state plan and its proper functioning.

Instructional and rally meetings were held in all counties of the State under the active supervision and participation of the State director, culminating in a State-wide rally at the Portland Civic Auditorium Monday, February 9, 1942, which was 1 week prior to the actual commencing of the inventory itself. Gov. Charles A. Sprague, Miss Mary Anderson of the Women's Division, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., and Mrs. Dunbar, State director, were the principal speakers in support of the forthcoming inventory, and their speeches were broadcast by radio throughout the State.

Early indications are that we shall have a registration of over 95 percent of all Oregon women over 18. A preliminary report on Multnomah County indicates that registration in this area will exceed 200,000, which is nearly 100 percent. The majority of those who are unregistered are being accounted for by inventory forms marked "Refusal," "Out-of-State," etc.

The census is now nearly finished, and I believe it will be a complete success. In my opinion, we shall have registrations of over 100,000 women who will be available for agricultural work in Oregon this summer.

Enclosed are forms, newspaper releases, and other data.

Sincerely yours,

(Mrs.) SAIDIE ORR DUNBAR,
State Director, Board for Mobilization of Women.
By FRANCIS J. O'CONNOR,
Assistant Director.

PROCEDURE FOR SETTING UP REGISTRATION CARDS FOR WOMEN'S CENSUS, POINTS 1 TO 5

1. In the top right-hand corner of the registration card, enter the employment office number, county, or counties if the office serves more than one county, and serial number of the cards, from 1 up. At the same time the employment office number, county, and serial number is put on, a list or card, showing name, address and telephone number of all registrants who have shown a willingness to assist in recruitment of agricultural labor during a harvest emergency should be made. This is the last item under question 12. This list should be contacted, possibly by telephone sometime prior to the first crop, to be sure that they are willing and understand what the local office expects of them during an emergency.

2. Sort the registration cards into the nine occupational classifications listed in the right-hand corner. The occupational classification should be made on the basis of the work history shown on the card. If the registrant's work history is such that there could be two or more occupational classifications, the local office will have to use its own discretion as to which occupational group should be used.

3. Each of the nine major occupational groups shall be sorted into the following categories:

- (a) Registrants, single, 18 to 25.
- (b) Registrants, single, 26 to 45.
- (c) Registrants, married, without children, 18 to 25.
- (d) Registrants, married without children, 26 to 45.
- (e) Registrants, married, with children, 18 to 25.
- (f) Registrants, married, with children, 26 to 45.
- (g) All registrants over 45.
- (h) All registrants now employed.

Using the professional group as an example, that section of the file would look as follows:

Now employed-----
 Over 45-----
 Married, with children, 26 to 45-----
 Married, with children, 18 to 25-----
 Married, without children, 26 to 45-----
 Married, without children, 18 to 25-----
 Single, 26 to 45-----
 Single, 18 to 25-----

PROFESSIONAL

The reasons for this simple break-down are twofold:

1. It places all the registration cards in an organized manner with the least amount of work for local office operations.

2. When the files are set up a statistical analysis amounts to a simple card count.

These minimum requirements are not intended to limit a local office from making a more detailed break-down if they so desire for operating purposes. In other words, you may expand this break-down to suit your local needs. It is recognized that this procedure will conceal much of the detailed information on the cards. For instance, many registrants with work experience in the professional occupational group will show a willingness to work in agriculture, but it is felt that there will be a tremendous group of registrants who have no other qualifications that are willing to work in agriculture and that until this classification is exhausted, it will not be necessary to work out supplementary lists. This also will be true in the various training classifications. The vital need is to get the women's census organized in a minimum amount of time.

All cards from registrants whose home addresses are in another employment service area, such as college students, should be mailed directly to the office covering the territory in which they reside. It is obvious from these instructions that the cards will never leave the local office and that they will not be key punched. As soon as the majority of the cards have been received in the local office, will you notify the administrative office according to the above procedure.

EXHIBIT 13.—MIGRATION OF AIRCRAFT WORKERS

TABLES SUBMITTED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, DIVISION OF WAGE AND HOUR STATISTICS¹

Percentage distribution of employees in 1 eastern aircraft plant classified according to area and region of their last previous employment and first-shift rate

[Based on 10 percent sample of labor force]

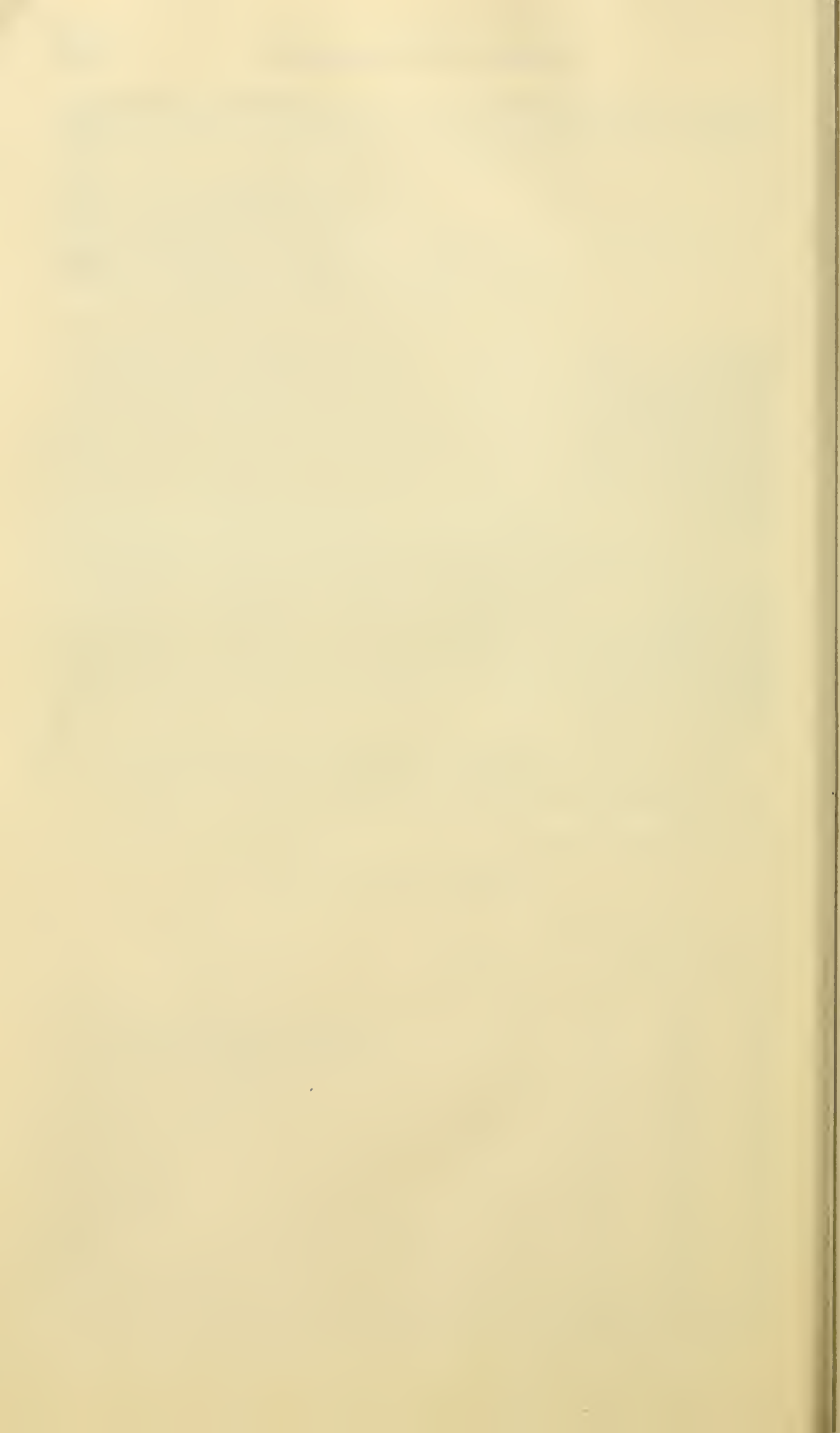
Area and region	First shift rate class			
	Total	Low	Medium	High
Same city-----	42.5	26.7	49.4	58.8
Same county other than city-----	1.7	1.8	1.4	2.1
Adjacent counties (same State or adjacent State)-----	3.9	3.3	5.1	3.5
Same State other than adjacent counties-----	4.4	5.6	4.3	2.4
Adjacent State other than adjacent counties-----	23.5	28.3	22.3	17.3
Other States-----	23.7	34.1	16.9	15.7
Outside continental United States-----	.2		.6	
Not reported-----	.1	.2		.2
Total number of employees-----	2,443	1,012	806	625
New England-----	1.6	.6	2.0	2.9
Middle Atlantic-----	21.6	21.9	22.1	20.4
East North Central-----	2.5	2.8	1.7	2.9
West North Central-----	5.7	10.3	3.7	.8
South Atlantic-----	63.7	56.1	67.4	70.9
East South Central-----	3.1	6.3	1.4	.2
West South Central-----	.8	1.5	.5	.2
Mountain-----	.2	.1	.2	.2
Pacific-----	.5	.2	.4	1.3
Outside continental United States-----	.2		.6	
Not reported-----	.1	.2		.2
Total number of employees-----	2,443	1,012	806	625

¹ Reference is made to the testimony of Donald H. Davenport (pt. 27, pp. 10256 et seq.) on this subject.

Percentage distribution of employees in 1 eastern aircraft plant classified according to the area and region of their last previous employment and length of service with the firm

[Based on 10 percent sample of labor force]

Area and region	Length of service with firm								Not reported
	Total	Less than 3 months	3 months and under 6 months	6 months and under 9 months	9 months and under 1 year	1 year and under 18 months	18 months and under 2 years	2 years and over	
Same city.....	42.5	22.3	31.2	41.3	49.0	60.7	55.8	67.6	10.0
Same county other than same city.....	1.7	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.	1.4	4.9	2.2	-----
Adjacent counties (same State or adjacent State).....	3.9	3.0	3.8	6.4	6.7	4.7	4.9	3.5	-----
Same State other than adjacent counties.....	4.4	5.7	6.1	4.6	2.9	1.9	4.9	2.5	10.0
Adjacent States other than adjacent counties.....	23.5	27.1	35.3	26.6	20.0	17.1	11.5	13.7	20.0
Other States.....	23.7	40.6	21.5	19.3	20.0	13.7	18.0	10.3	20.0
Outside continental United States.....	.1	.3	-----	-----	-----	.5	-----	-----	-----
Not reported.....	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	.2	40.0
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of employees.....	2,443	767	475	109	210	211	61	600	10
New England.....	1.6	.9	1.3	4.6	1.9	1.4	3.3	2.2	-----
Middle Atlantic.....	21.6	22.0	28.0	24.8	22.4	20.9	16.4	15.7	40.0
East North Central.....	2.5	3.0	2.3	2.8	-----	2.8	4.9	2.3	-----
West North Central.....	5.7	11.6	5.1	4.6	7.6	1.4	-----	.3	-----
South Atlantic.....	63.7	52.5	58.5	63.2	65.2	72.5	73.8	77.9	20.0
East South Central.....	3.1	7.2	3.8	-----	.5	.5	1.6	-----	-----
West South Central.....	.8	1.8	.6	-----	1.0	-----	-----	.2	-----
Mountain.....	.2	.4	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	.2	-----
Pacific.....	.5	.3	.4	-----	1.4	-----	-----	1.0	-----
Outside continental United States.....	.1	.3	-----	-----	-----	.5	-----	-----	-----
Not reported.....	.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	.2	40.0
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of employees.....	2,443	767	475	109	210	211	61	600	10



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This book is the second of two books dealing with the subject of Manpower in War Production. Each is indexed separately, but the reader is asked to refer to both indexes (Part 27 and Part 28), especially to locate testimony and material on the following subjects: Defense Migration; Employment Service; Housing; Manpower; Recommendations; Selective Service System; Surveys; Vocational Education; Women Workers.

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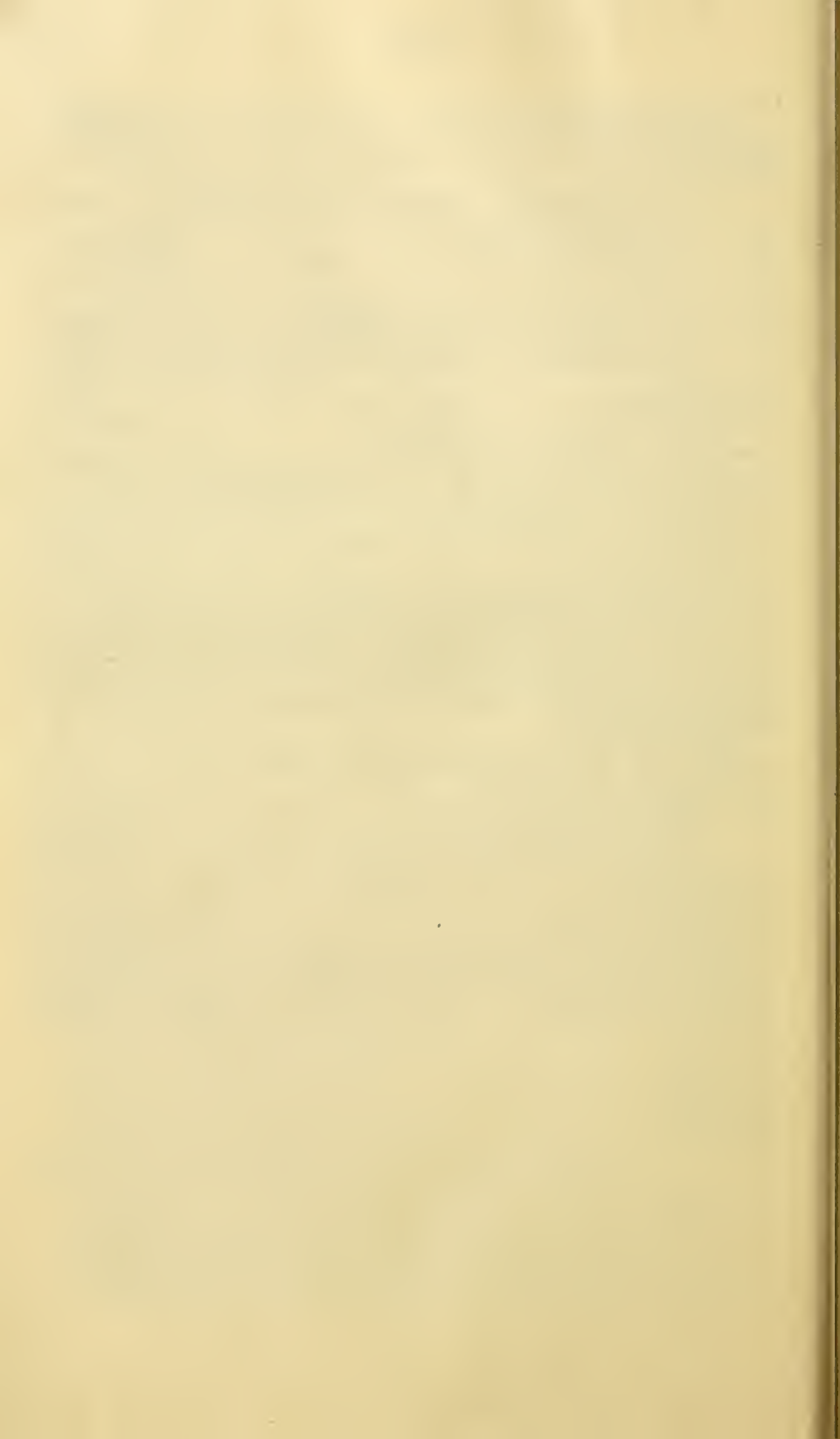
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